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The Association Review

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S. G. DAVIDSON, ASSOCIATE EDITOR

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INDEX TO VOLUME VI.

Acousticon, The, by Edwin Stanley Thompson, 187; — at the St. Louis Exposition, editorial, 433.
Adult Deaf, The Care of the, 346.
Allen, Jessie B., 63.
American Annals of the Deaf, extracts from, 80, 422; reviews of, 88, 177, 256, 361; refs. to, 406, 410, 423; statistics from, 93.
American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf: Circular Relating to the School Exhibits at the St. Louis Exposition, 144, Call for the Annual Meeting, 146; Report of the Annual Meeting, 280; New Members, 97, 373; Names and Addresses of Members, 439.
American Institutions for the Deaf, by P. Fornari, 1.
American Institutions for the Education of the Deaf, by G. Ferreri, 211, 288, 395.
American Schools for the Deaf, Why they are Superior, editorial, 431.
Aphasia Caused by Malaria, by Hermann Gutzmann, 237.
Aphasia in a Child, by G. Mayor, 418.
Argo, W. K., 402, 403, 405, 406.
Articulation, Correction of, 152.
Auricular Training: The Value of Methodical Exercises in Hearing, by Dr. Victor Urbantchitsch, 48; Measurement and Development of the Hearing Power in the Deaf, by R. Marage, reviewed by G. Ferreri, 127; The Physiology of, 232; — in the Munich School, by G. Ferreri, 411.
Austria, a New Institution for the Deaf in, 162.
Axling, Philip L., James Simpson, a Life Sketch, 132.
Bache, R. Meade, Receptiveness of the Sense of Hearing in Different Races of Men, 160.
Backward and Mentally Weak Children, The Education of, by H. Stelling, 161.
Baldrian, K., 177.
Bancroft, Margaret, 320.
Banerji, J. N., 263.
Baton Rogue, La., School, 369.
Bell, Alexander Graham, Call for Annual Meeting of the Association, 146; refs. to, 254, 289, 292.
Bell, Alexander Melville, 256.
Bending, Eugene J., obituary notice, 261.
Berg, W., Education of the Deaf for Speaking, 241.
Berglind, Jeannette, 63.
Berlin City Schools for Adult Deaf, review of report, 360.
Bickkers, I. C., 63.
Blake, Clarence J., committee report, 317.
Blatter fur Taubstummenbildung, translations from, 9, 73, 152, 159, 162, 234, 344, 346, 423.
Blattner, J. W., 402, 406, 434.
Blind-Deaf, The, articles on and refs. to, 92, 156, 165, 170, 320.
Booth, Edmund, 261.

Booth, F. W., The Care of Children at the St. Louis Exposition, 91; The Annals Statistics, 93; A Recent Visit to Southern Schools, 258; Texas Teachers at the Northampton School, 260; Note on Deaf Children in Philadelphia Vacation Schools, 331; Spelling in Chapel, 365; Proceedings of the Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals, 407; Helen Keller Day at St. Louis, 410; Some Schools Visited, 429; An English Teacher on Spelling in Chapel, 432; The Model Schools at St. Louis, 432; The Acousticon at the St. Louis Exposition, 433; The Texas Teachers at Northampton, 434.
Braunschweig, Germany, School for the Deaf, 362.
Bridgman, Laura, Dr. Howe's Famous Pupil and What he Taught Her, a review, 165.
Brock, Marcus I., 63.
Brown, Rev. John G., obituary notice, 189.
Buenos Aires, Argentine Republic, School, review of report, 252.
Burritt, O. H., committee report, 317.
Caldwell, W. A., 19.
Campbell, Mary R., 312, 320.
Caprices of Children, by G. Ferreri, 84.
Carter, Franklin, Report of the Clarke School for the Deaf, a review, 249.
Catholic Children in the Schools, discussed by J. F. Donnelly, 406.
Chats on Literature with my Children, a review, 360.
Cheefoo, China, School, 90, 357.
Chicago, a Change in, relating to the establishment of a department at the Normal School for training teachers of the Deaf, 368.
Chicago Day-Schools, A Layman's View of the Controversy over Methods in, 436.
Chicago Hospital School for Nervous and Delicate Children, by Mary R. Campbell, 320.
Chrisman, Oscar, Sight and Hearing in Relation to Education, 306.
Christiania, Norway, Public School for the Deaf, 362.
Church for the Deaf in Copenhagen, 426.
City or Country, as to the relative advantage of, for the Deaf for residence, 248.
Clarke, Francis D., 402, 403, 405, 407.
Clarke School for the Deaf, see Northampton, Mass. School.
Commandment, A, that should not be Obeyed, by J. G. De Vries, 283.
Companion, The, extracts from, 184, 357.
Compensation of the Senses, 79.
Conference of Superintendents and Principals, The Ninth, Call for, 148, 363; Report of Proceedings of, 402.
Connor, W. O., 403, 404, 406.
Contemporary Thought, a department, 65, 152, 229, 342, 418.
Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf, Postponement of, 96.
Conventions of the Deaf at St. Louis, editorial, 365.
Copenhagen, Church for the Deaf in, 426.
Correction of Articulation, 152.
Courses of Study and Text Books, discussed by Francis D. Clarke, 403.
Crouter, A. L. E., Report of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, a review, 169; on Examinations, Grading, and Promotions, 403; refs. to, 402, 405, 406, 407.
Currier, E. H., 406.
Danger, O., on the Education of the Deaf for Human Society, 10; Hereditary Deafness, 66; The Education of the Deaf for Life in Human Society, 101; Statistics of the Institutions for the Deaf in Prussia, 164; The Instruction of Backward Deaf-Mutes—A Correction, 422.

Danish Government Institutions for Persons Suffering from Impediments in Speech, 421.
Davidson, S. G., Wrist Reading by the Blind-Deaf, 92; Laura Bridgman, Dr. Howe's Famous Pupil, and How He Taught Her, 165; The Ida Montgomery Testimonial, 186; The Statistics of Speech Teaching in America, 260; The St. Louis Conventions of the Deaf, 367; Why American Schools are Superior, 431.
Dawson, Ella S., obituary notice of, 371.
Day-schools, Advantages and Disadvantages of, discussed by Warring Wilkinson, 405.
Deaf Carolinian, extracts from, 181, 427.
Deaf Children in Vacation Schools in Philadelphia, by Jane Hubbard, 331.
Deaf, Church for the, in Copenhagen, 426.
Deaf in Literature, Blunders regarding the, by Edwin Stanley Thompson, 91.
Deaf-Blind, see Blind-Deaf.
Deaf Son, The, of Croesus in Greek Literature and in an Italian Work of Art, 226.
Deaf Teacher, A, Agreeably Surprised by the Work of an Oral Class, 88.
Deaf, The, as Members of Human Society, 157.
Deaf, The Position of the, n Human Society, 69.
Deaf, the Care of the Adult, 346.
Deafness, Causes of, 155, 163.
Deaf, Education of the, for Human Society, by O. Danger, 10, 101, 422.
Deafness, Hereditary, 66.
Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children, report of Committee on, 312.
Department of Special Education, Programme of Meeting of, 226; Report of Meeting of, 301; discussed by J. W. Jones, 404.
Deutsche Taubstummen-Correspondenz, translation from, 160, 164.
De Vries, J. G., A Commandment that should not be Obeyed, 283; ref. to, 417.
Die Kinderfehler, translations from, 66, 418.
Discipline, by Margaret J. Stevenson, 222.
Division of Pupils in the Instruction of the Deaf according to their Capacity, by Hugo Hoffman, 35.
Dobyns, J. R., 404, 407.
Donnelly, J. W., 406.
Dramatization as a Factor in Education, by Mary McCowen, 44, 109.
Dranot, Eduard, 180.
Draper, Amos G., English Language Learned only through its Practice, 427.
Driggs, F. M., 403.
Editorial Comment: The Care of the Children at the Exposition, 91; Wrist Reading by the Blind-Deaf, 92; The Annals Statistics, 93; The Ida Montgomery Testimonial, 186; The Rev. John G. Brown, 189; The Acousticon, 187; The Sacramento, California, Day-school, 188; International Congress and National Association of the Deaf, 189; A Recent Visit to Southern Schools, 258; The Statistics of Speech Teaching, 260; Texas Teachers at the Northampton School, 260; A Bit of History, 261; Spelling in Chapel, 365; Some Schools Visited. 429; The St. Louis Conventions of the Deaf, 365; Why American Schools for the Deaf are Superior, 431; An English Teacher on Spelling in Chapel, 432; The Model Schools at St. Louis, 433; The Acousticon at the St. Louis Exposition, 433; The Texas Teachers at Northampton, 434; A Layman's View of the Controversy over Methods in Chicago, 436.

Education for Speaking, 241.
Education of the Deaf for Human Society, by O. Danger, 10, 101, 422.
Educazione dei Sordomuti, translations from, 228, 411.
Effata, translation from, 156.
Ely, Chas, W., 403, 407.
Emden, Germany, School for the Deaf, 359.
Emden Zeitung, translation from, 164.
English as She is Taught, 184.
English, an Experience in Teaching Idiomatic, to the Deaf, by J. L. Smith, 18.
English Language Learned only through its Practice, 427.
English Visible Speech and its Typography Elucidated, by Alexander Melville Bell, a review, 256.
Erhardt, George Friedrich, 63.
Every-Day English, Book Two, a review, 176.
Evolution, The, from "Asylum" to "School" in Norway, by Lars A. Havstad, 80.
Examinations, Grading, and Promotions, discussed by A. L. E. Crouter, 403.
Fairbanks, Arthur Willard, Speech Defects in their Relation to Abnormal Conditions of the Brain of the Child, 376.
Fay, Edward Allen, 289, 290, 292, 297, 402, 406, 407.
Fechheimer, A. Lincoln, 262.
Fechheimer, L. S., obituary notice of, 437.
Ferreri, G., American Institutions for the Deaf, 1., Library of the Magazine, L'Educazione dei Sordomuti, 82; Mimics and Gesture, 83; Caprices of Children, 84; The Measurement and Development of the Hearing Power in the Deaf, 127; The American Institutions for the Education of the Deaf, 211, 288, 395; The Munich School and Auricular Instruction, 411; ref. to, 431.
Florence, Italy, School for the Deaf, 179.
Fornari, P., on American Institutions for the Deaf, 1.
Foster, Mary E. Unkart, obituary notice of, 437.
Francis, David R., 408, 410.
Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany, Institution, 17.
Fredericia, Norway, School, 245.
Freedom of the Teacher, 90.
Freeman, J. H., 320.
Fuller, Sarah, sketch of Edgar William Emery Tompson, 130; refs. to, 402, 410.
Gallaudet College, 262, 403.
Gallaudet, E. M., on Higher Education of the Deaf, 403; refs. to, 96, 406, 407, 408, 410.
Gass, Marshall T., obituary notice of, 261.
Geography for the Austrian Schools for the Deaf, by K. Baldrian, and H. Kolar, a review, 179.
Geography Lessons at the Horace Mann School, by Elsie L. Hobart, 54.
German Museum of Deaf-Mute Education, 17.
German Teachers of the Deaf, Sixth Meeting of the Association, 9.
Germany, Statistics of the Deaf in, 164.
Gillett, C. P., 404.
Giraud, Desire, 63.
Goldstein, M. A., 320.
Gordon, Joseph Claybaugh, 63.
Gottenborg, Sweden, Preparatory School for the Deaf, 244.
Govan Oral School, Glasgow, Scotland, 81.

Grammar School Work in the Horace Mann School, by Mary H. Thompson, 55.
Grasping the Meaning as a Whole, by Edward B. Nitchie, 198.
Green, S. M., What Teachers May Learn from the Model Schools for the Deaf and the Blind at the St. Louis Exposition, 304; ref. to, 312.
Griff, Jennie, 367.
Groningen, Holland, School for the Deaf, a review of its Report, 173.
Guide to the Pronunciation of Japanese, by S. Isawa, a review 254.
Gurley, C. A., 63.
Gutzmann, Hermann, What Spain is doing for the Deaf, 77; Aphasia Caused by Malaria, 237.
Hall, Percival, Report of Committee on Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children, 312; ref. to, 369.
Halonen, Agnete, 156.
Hammond, H. C., 404.
Handering, F. W., Practical Instruction and Education of the Deaf, 159.
Hanson, Olof, Sign Language in American Schools, 150.
Havstad, Lars A., The Evolution from "Asylum" to "School" in Norway, 80.
Hearing of Speech of Mentally Weak Children, by F. Janicke, 342.
Hereditary Deafness, by O. Danger, 66.
Higher Education of the Deaf, discussed by E. M. Gallaudet, 403.
Hobart, Elsie L., Geography Lessons in the Horace Mann School, 54.
Hoffmann, Hugo, The Division of Pupils in the Instruction of the Deaf according to their Capacity, 35.
Holt, M. H., 406.
Horace Mann School, Manual Training in, 53; Geography Lessons in, 54; The Grammar School Work in, 55.
Howard, James, obituary sketch with portrait, 57; 63.
Howe, Samuel Gridley, 165.
Hoyt, R. D., 63.
Hubbard, Jane, Deaf Children in Vacation Schools of Philadelphia, 331.
Hungarian Institutions for the Deaf, 191.
Hurd, E. G., What is Best for the Child? 181.
Hutchinson, Emlen, Report of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, a review, 169.
Iceland, What has been done for the Deaf in, 247.
Idiomatic English, an Experience in teaching, to the Deaf, by J. L. Smith, 18.
Illustrations: portrait of James Howard, op. page 57; portrait of James Simpson, op. page 132; portrait of Ellen Harrington Swett, op. page 225.
Indianapolis School, Outlines for 1903-1904, 87.
Industrial Education of the Deaf, 106; discussed by J. P. Walker, 406.
Industrial Training, refs. to, 106, 239, 406.
Institution Press, The, a department, 88, 189, 351, 427.
International Congress and National Association of the Deaf, 189, 367.
Isawa, S., Guide to the Pronunciation of Japanese, 254.
Iolesz, Andreas Chazar de, 191.
Jackson, Sallie, 64.
Jacobson, H., Sixth Meeting of the Association of German Teachers of the Deaf, 9; Translation of the Education of the Deaf for Life in Human Society, by O. Danger, 101.
Janicke, F., The Hearing of Speech of Mentally Weak Children, 342.
Japanese, Guide to the Pronunciation of, by S. Isawa, 254.
Jastremski, John, obituary notice of, 372.

Johnson, Richard O., Circular of American Association Committee relating to School Exhibits at St. Louis, 144; Call for the Meeting of the Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals, 148, 363; refs. to, 369, 402, 403, 405, 406, 407.
Johnson, J. H., 405.
Jones, John W., Programme of the Meeting of the Department of Special Education, 226; Address at Meeting of Department of Special Education, 301; refs. to, 369, 402, 404, 405, 406, 407.
Jorgensen, J. G., 245.
Keller, Helen, Compared with Laura Bridgman, 165; At Radcliffe College, by John Albert Macy, 321; Helen Keller Day at St. Louis, by F. W. Booth, 408; refs. to, 7, 408.
Kinsey, Eveline, Suggestions on the Management of the Voice, 206.
Klange aus stiller Welt, by Eugene Sutermeister, a review, 178.
Kokugo Hatsuon Shinan, by S. Isawa, a review, 254.
Kolar, Heinrich, 179.
Koller, M., 178.
Konischi, S., 81.
Lacharriere, Ladreit de, 64.
Landis, Kate S., obituary notice of, 372.
Language:
An Experiment in Teaching Idiomatic English to the Deaf, by J. L. Smith, 18.
A Text Book for the Teaching of Language, by M. Koller, a review, 178.
What is Best for the Child, by E. G. Hurd, 181.
The Secret to Improvement in Language, its Habitual Use, 183.
English as She is Taught, 184.
How to Interest Pupils in Reading, by Bettie B. Spencer, 202.
Spelling in Chapel, 351.
Larson, Lars M., 262.
Leonardi De Vinci's Last Supper, a Classical Study of Mimics and Gesture, 68.
L'Educazione dei Sordomuti, translations from, 228, 231.
Lind, Harold Christian, 64.
Linnartz, Wilhelm, 64.
Lip Reading, Caution in, 67; Grasping the Meaning as a Whole, by Edward Nitchie, 198.
Louisiana Purchase Exposition, see St. Louis Exposition.
Louisiana Institution for the Deaf, see Baton Rouge, La., School.
Macey, John Albert, Helen Keller at Radcliffe College, 321.
Madrid, National College for the Deaf and Blind at, 175.
Mangioni, F., 179.
Mann, Mary A., 64.
Manual Alphabet, articles on and references to, 150, 396, 427, 428.
Manual Training in the Horace Mann School, by Kate F. Hobart, 53.
Marage, Dr., The Measurement and Development of Hearing Power in the Deaf, 127.
Mathison, R., 404, 433.
Mayor, G., Aphasia in a Child, 418.
McAloney, T. S., 403.
McCowen, Mary T., Dramatization as a Factor in Education, 44, 109; ref. to, 368.
McMullen, D. P., 312.
Measurement and Development of Hearing Power in the Deaf, by Dr. Marage, 127.

Medizinische-padagogische Monatisschrift fur die gesammte Sprachheilkunde, translations from, 74, 77, 79, 155, 161, 237, 241, 342.
Membership List of the American Association to promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, 439.
Messenger, The, extract from, 57.
Michigan Mirror, extract from, 184.
Mimics and Gesture, by G. Ferreri, 83.
Moeller, F., 407.
Molino, Pedro, 175.
Monaci, Silvio, 82.
Montgomery, Ida, Testimonial to, 186.
Monro, Sarah Jordan, Some "Dont's," and their "Whys," 116; "A Recommended Novelty"—A Reply to J. G. De Vries, 417; refs. to, 283, 376, 438.
Moral and Religious Training, discussed, 404.
Morrison, Frederick D., obituary notice of, 437.
Morse, Anna, 403, 406.
Mott, R. A., 404.
Mt. Airy World, extract from, 356.
Munich School, Auricular Instruction at the, by G. Ferreri, 411.
Murphy, J. J., 18.
Necrology for 1903 of Persons Connected with the Education of the Deaf, 63.
Nelson, E. B., 402.
New Brunswick School, 430.
New Members, 97, 373.
Newspapers and Periodicals quoted or Referred to:
American Annals of the Deaf, 88, 93, 177, 256, 361, 422.
Blatter fur Taubstummenbildung, 9, 73, 152, 159, 162, 234. 344, 346, 423.
Companion, The, 184, 357.
Deutsche Taubstummen-Correspondenz, 160, 164.
Die Kinderfehler, 66, 418.
Effata, 156.
Emden Zeitung, 164.
L'Educazione dei Sordomuti, 83, 177, 228, 231, 252.
Medizinische-padagogische Monatschrift fur die gesammte Sprachilkunde, 74, 77, 79, 161, 237, 241, 342.
Messenger, The, 57.
Michigan Mirror, 183.
Mt. Airy World, 356.
Nordisk Tidskrift for Dofstumskolan, 86, 244, 361, 421.
Organ der Taubstummen Anstalten in Deutschland, 65, 67, 68. 69, 71, 156.
Palmetto Leaf, 357.
Rassegna della Educazione dei Sordomuti, 178, 253.
Rochester Daily Advocate, 90.
Rocky Mountain Leader, 428.
School News and Practical Educator, 251.
Smaablade for Dovstumme, 245, 247, 426.
Taubstummen-Courier, 248.
Teacher of the Deaf, The, 87, 206, 257.
Tidning for Dofstumma, 163.
Wisconsin Times, 89, 90, 184.
Youth's Companion, 321.
Nitchie, Edward B., Grasping the Meaning as a Whole, 198.
Nordin, Mrs. Elizabeth Anrep, 405, 407.

Northampton, Mass., School, A New Building Needed, 249; The Texas Teachers at, 260, 434.
Noyes, J. L., 404.
Nordisk Tidskrift for Dofstumskolan, translations from, 244, 361, 421.
Obituary Sketches and Notices:
Bending, Eugene J., 261.
Brown, Rev. John J., 189.
Dawson, Ella S., 371.
Fechheimer, L. S., 437.
Foster, Mary E. Unkart, 437.
Gass, Marshall T., 261.
Howard, James, 57.
Jastremski, John, 372.
Landis, Kate S., 372.
Morrison, Frederick D., 437.
Seiss, Dr. Joseph A., 371.
Simpson, James, 132.
Swett, Ellen Harrington, 223.
Tompson, Edward William Emery, 130.
Wardroper, Maria L., 372.
Weed, George Ludington, 370.
See also Necrology for 1903, 63.
Oral Reproduction, An, by C. E. Patzer, 46.
Oral Work, see Speech, and Lip-Reading.
Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland, translations from, 65, 67, 68, 69, 71, 157.
Outlines for 1903-1904, Indianapolis School, 87.
Palmetto Leaf, extract from, 357.
Park, Plumb M., 64.
Patzer, C. E., An Oral Reproduction, 46.
Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, see Philadelphia, Mt. Airy, School.
Philadelphia, Mt. Airy, School, review of report, 169.
Plastic Work in Clay at the Central Institution for the Deaf at Munich, by Hans Wild, 239.
Pope, Alvin E., Preparations for the Care of Pupils at the St. Louis Exposition, 41; refs. to, 91, 407, 410.
Practical Instruction and Education of the Deaf, by F. W. Handering, 159.
Rankin, Jean Sherwood, 177.
Rassegna della Educazione Sordomuti, reviews, 178, 253.
Reading, How to Interest Pupils in, by Bettie B. Spencer, 202.
Receptiveness to the Sense of Hearing in the Different Races of Mankind, by R. Meade Bache, 160.
Religious Training, refs. to, 107 160, 407.
Reports reviewed:
Berlin City School for the Adult Deaf, 360.
Braunschweig, Germany, Institution for the Deaf, 362.
Buenos Aires National Institution for Deaf Girls, 252.
Christiania, Norway, Public School for the Deaf, 362.
Emden, Germany, Institution for the Deaf, 358.
Georgia School for the Deaf at Cave Spring, 180.
Govan Oral School, Glasgow, Scotland, 81.
Groningen, Holland, School for the Deaf, 173.
Halifax, Nova Scotia, School, 180.
Hamburg, Germany, Institution, 180.
Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb, at Frederick, 180.

New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, at Washington Heights, 257.
North Stafford, Stoke-upon-Trent, Blind and Deaf School, 257.
Ontario Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, at Belleville, 180.
Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, at Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, 119.
Rotterdam, Holland, Institution, 180, 253.
Saxony, Prussia, Institution for the Deaf, 362.
School Home for Blind-Deaf at Venersborg, Sweden, 170.
South Australian Institution for the Blind and Deaf and Dumb, at Brighton, 180.
Tokyo, Japan, Blind and Dumb School, 81.
Venersborg, Sweden, School for the Deaf, 362.
Winnenden, Germany, Institution for the Deaf and Home for Adult Deaf 180.
West Australian Deaf and Dumb Institution at Cottesloe Beach, 180.
Zurich, Switzerland, School, 253.
Reynard, Albert, 64.
Riemunn, G., 180.
Warren, Robinson, Spelling in Chapel, 355.
Rocky Mountain Leader, extract from, 428.
Rogers, Augustus, 402.
Roorda, P., 173.
Rothert, Henry W., 404, 407.
Rotterdam, Holland, School, 253.
Sacramento, Cal., Day-school, 188.
Sanders, Lucy M., Sketch of Ellen Harrington Swett, 225.
Sante Fe, New Mexico, School, 262.
Saxony, Prussia, School, 362.
Scandinavian Congress relating to the Care of the Blind, the Deaf, the Weak-Minded, and the Idiotic, by H. Snelling, 242.
Schaffer, Anna E., Report of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, Deaf School Section Meeting, 43; refs. to, 47, 320.
Schmidt, Amkea, 406, 407.
Schneider, M., Free Object Lessons as a Basis of Instruction in Speech, 234.
School News and Practical Educator, extract from, 251.
Schumann, P., The Scientific Training of Teachers of the Deaf, 13.
Scuri, E., 179.
Seiss, Joseph A., obituary notice, 371.
Seyffarth, Ludwig Wilhelm, 64.
Sex and Deafness, 231.
Should Pictorial Representations of the Organs of Speech be used, 65.
Sight and Hearing in relation to Education, by Oscar Chrisman, 306.
Sign-language in American Schools for the Deaf, by Olof Hanson, 150.
Sign-language, refs. to, 150, 181, 355, 357.
Simpson, James, by Philip L. Axling and Frank R. Wright, 132; ref. to, 64.
Smaablade for Dovstumme, translations from, 245, 247, 426.
Smith, James L., An Experience in Teaching Idiomatic Language to the Deaf, 18.
Smith, Marie L., 64.
Smith, Mary E., 370.
Some of the Weak Points in the Character of the Deaf, 71.
Some Schools Visited, editorial, 429.
Some Wishes as Regards the Scientific Education of Teachers of the Deaf, 73.

Songs from the Silent World, by Eugene Sutermeister, a review, 178.
Southern Schools, a Recent Visit to, editorial, 258.
Spain, What She is doing for the Deaf, by Hermann Gutzmann, 77.
Speech and Speech Teaching:
Should Pictorial Representations of the Organs of Speech be Used?, 65.
Courses for Stuttering Children in the Berlin Public Schools, 74.
Some "Don'ts" and their "Whys," by Sarah Jordan Monro, 116.
Speech Teaching in American Schools for the Deaf, 122.
Correcting Articulation, 152.
Suggestions on the Management of the Voice, by Eveline I. Kinsey, 206.
Free Object Lessons as a Basis in the Elementary Instruction in Speech in Schools for the Deaf, by M. Schneider, 234.
Education for Speaking, by W. Berg, 241.
Report on the Progress of Speech Teaching in America, 264.
A Command that Should not be Obeyed, by J. G. De Vries, 283.
Speech Defects in Relation to Abnormal Conditions of the Brain in the Child, 375.
"A Recommended Novelty" — A Reply to J. G. De Vries, by Sarah Jordan Monro, 417.
Danish Government Institutions for Persons Suffering from Impediments in Speech, 421.
The Acquisition of Speech, 423.
Speech-reading, see Lip-reading.
Spelling in Chapel, 351, 428, 432.
Spencer, Bettie B., How to Interest Pupils in Reading, 202.
Spencer, R. C., 312.
Statistics:
The Annals Statistics, 93.
Speech Teaching in American Schools for the Deaf, 1893-1903, 122.
The Sign-language in American Schools, 150.
Causes of Deafness, 155, 163.
The Deaf in Germany, 164.
Institutions for the Deaf in Prussia, 164.
Progress of Speech Teaching in America, 264.
Speech Teaching in the United States, 1899-1904, 265.
Speech Teaching in Canada, 265.
Schools for the Deaf in the United States, 266.
Speech Teaching in American Schools for the Deaf, March 31, 1904, 271.
Notes on Speech Teaching in American Schools for the Deaf, 277.
Defective Sight and Hearing in Public School Children, Report of Committee, 312.
Steinke, Elsie, 43.
Stelling, H., Report of the Fifth Scandinavian Congress Relating to the Care of the Blind, the Deaf, the Weak-Minded, and the Idiotic, 242.
Stevenson, Margaret J., Discipline, 222; The Life of Jesus, a review, 263.
Stewart, R. E., 402, 404.
Stewart, W. J., 430.
St. Louis Exposition, The,:
Preparations for the Care of Pupils at—, by Alvin E. Pope, 41.
Care of Children at—, editorial, 90.
Circular of the American Association Committee relating to School Exhibits at—, 144.

What Teachers Can Learn from the Model Schools of the Deaf, the Blind and the Exhibits at—, by S. M. Green, 304.
Conventions of the Deaf at—, editorial, 367.
Note on—, 368.
International Jury of Awards at—, 369.
Conference of Superintendents and Principals at—, 402.
Helen Keller Day at—, 408.
The William Wade Gold Medal, 431.
The Model Schools at—, editorial, 432.
The Acousticon at—, editorial, 433.
Sutermeister, Eugene, 178.
Swett, Ellen Harrington, by Lucy M. Sanders, 225.
Tate, J. N., 403, 404.
Taubstummen-Courier, translation from, 248.
Teacher, The, and the Defective Child, by M. A. Goldstein, 320.
Teacher of the Deaf, extract from, 206; reviewed, 87, 257, 361.
Think About It, by Frank H. Hall, 251.
Thompson, Edwin Stanley, Blunders regarding the Deaf in Literature, 61.
Thompson, Mary H., The Grammar School Work in the Horace Mann School, 55.
Tidning for Dofstumma, translation from, 163.
Tokyo Blind and Dumb School, 81.
Tompson, Edward William Emery, by Sarah Fuller, 130.
Training of Teachers of the Deaf, by P. Schumann, 13.
Training Classes, 369.
Tuberculosis among the Deaf, The Prevention of, 344.
Turner, Job, 64.
Utah Eagle, extract from, 350.
Urbantschitsch, Victor, The Value of Methodical Exercises in Hearing, 48.
Vacation Schools in Philadelphia, Deaf Children in, by Jane Hubbard, 331.
Van Adestine, Elizabeth, Report of Meeting of the Department of Special Education, N. E. A., 301.
Vatter, Joh., Exposition of his Methods, 10.
Venersborg, Sweden, School Home for the Blind-Deaf, 170.
Venersborg, Sweden, School for the Deaf, 362.
Visible Speech, English, and its Typography Elucidated, by Alexander Melville Bell, a review, 256.
Volta Bureau, 17.
Wade, William, 404, 410, 431.
Walker, E. W., 46, 89, 402, 406.
Walker, J. P., on Industrial, Training, 406.
Walker, N. F., 402, 403, 405.
Walker, S. T., 369, 402, 406.
Wallis, John, 82.
Wardroper, Maria L., obituary notice of, 372.
Weed, George Ludington, obituary notice of, 370.
Westervelt, Z. F., 405.
Wettstein, Frances, 405.
What do you say? a review, by M. Koller, 178.
What is Best for the Child? by E. G. Hurd, 181.
Wie Sagst Du? a review, by M. Koller, 178.
Wild, Hans, Plastic Work in Clay at the Munich Institution, 239.
Wilkinson, Warring, 402, 403, 404, 405, 406, 410.

Wisconsin Teachers' Association, Deaf School Section Meeting, by Anna E. Schaffer, 43.
Wisconsin Times, extracts from, 89, 90, 184, 355.
Wright, Frank R., A Life-Sketch of James Simpson, 132.
Wrist Reading by the Blind-deaf, editorial, 92.
Youth's Companion, extract from, 321.
Zurich, Switzerland, School, 253.

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"AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF."[1]

BY PROF. P. FORNARI, LATE PRINCIPAL OF THE R. NORMAL SCHOOL, "GIROLAMO CARDANO," OF MILAN, ITALY.

Italy now, and, I may venture to say, all Europe, may know what they are really doing in America, that is to say, in the United States of America, for the sacred cause of the deaf. Until now we have only had isolated notices from the newspapers which cross the Atlantic—and one understands the suspicion, justified or not, that "*canards*" also come that way—or else there were enigmatical accounts from the *dilettante*, or official communications from there, the value of which varied according to the faith of the reader.

At last, however, we have a technical man with a sure reputation and above suspicion, who has revealed to us America in its reality, laborious and beneficient for the instruction of the deaf.

Professor Ferreri, availing himself of a voluntary exile, went to America in 1901, where he remained more than a year, visiting the institutions for the deaf, studying them with affectionate interest and with technical knowledge, and thus he has conscientiously collected a real treasure of interesting material, which, on his return to Italy, he has put in order and now has published in a volume of about 400 pages with the title already made known to the readers of the REVIEW.[2]

[1] "Le Istituzioni Americane per l'educazione dei sordomuti." G. Ferreri. Palermo. A. Reber. 1903.

[2] See the REVIEW, December, 1903.

The reading of this book so full of matter, not only of notes, but also thoughts, observations, and criticisms, is of great practical utility to every one conscientiously devoted to the cause of the deaf, not only for us in Europe, but also for the Americans, who will certainly take pleasure in reading what such an eminent teacher says of them, and especially as they also may learn something from some parts of the book.

The book contains fourteen chapters with an Appendix. The title of each is a *thesis* which invites us to read with interest and attention, involving one or more vital questions, some of which *adhuc sub judice.*

I will make a rapid review of the work in order that the reader of this bibliographical sketch may persuade himself of the great importance of this publication of our colleague Professor Ferreri.

I. *The American schools for the instruction of the Deaf.*

Mr. Ferreri finds the same defects in the pedagogy of abnormal children in America which are encountered in Europe, with this difference, that here we vie with each other in striving to maintain the *statu quo*, while in America there is a competition in the contrary direction, as *there* they wish to go forward at any cost, and therefore all necessary means, material and moral, are procured for every possible improvement in educational work. (Page 4.)

After some statistics which show clearly the development of this special branch of education, he speaks of the organization of the schools for the deaf in the United States and makes a psychological examination in favor of American life. "The American," he says, "never stops to discuss ways and means when he sees that he can do a good work." (Page 8.)

In emphasizing the unlimited liberty in North America for every private initiative, he makes the just observation that it is always directed there to the greatest good, from the lively spirit of emulation and of moral and intellectual influence; thus helping each other mutually, they do not become involved in difficulties, nor are they hindered by stupid rivalries as in other countries. "In every place in the United States the most commodious and also the finest buildings are those dedicated to the

instruction of the children and to the public libraries." (Page 10.)

II. *Methods of instruction.*

"These were," says the author, "the principal object of my visit and of my researches." He who, besides his own long experience, has also visited the schools of various nations of Europe, could with enlightened criticism study thoroughly and value justly the *five* methods in use in the United States. A convinced oralist, however, he affirms: "It is not true that the deaf of little intelligence advance more in learning language, if taught by means of writing and the manual alphabet instead of by speech," (page 31); of which he notices principally the *practical value.* This is a most important chapter for all educators on both sides of the Atlantic, and the same must be said of the following:

III. *The course of instruction.*

Here Mr. Ferreri speaks again in criticism of the various American methods: "Here there is a constant exercise of fingering innervation," (page 39). But he notes also that "the supreme aim of the American school is to put each pupil in the condition best adapted for developing as far as possible his own physical and intellectual powers."

Here the professional reveals himself more than ever, and from what he expounds, it is evident that in visiting the schools he felt the real life, but not as happens to the *dilettante* visitors, who, entering a mill dressed in black, on leaving, more or less covered with flour, exclaim, "Behold me also a miller!"

IV. *Higher education for the deaf in America.*

Ferreri praises, admires, criticises, blames, discusses finally (for Italy) the practicability of such instruction for the deaf, (page 59). "In America," he says, "there is no hurry in preparing the young for a lucrative employment..... The American workingman elevates himself in the exercise of his trade in proportion to the culture of his mind," etc., (page 60).

V. *Kindergarten schools for the deaf.*

Considering the kindergarten schools from a pedagogical point of view, the author praises the institution, and I might say almost with envy, and with reason, for this provision which flourishes there is denied to the little deaf-mutes of Italy. "The

Kindergarten school is a blessing for little deaf children," (page 74), and he gives the reasons. But in Italy.....

VI. *Day schools and Boarding schools.*

This is the eternal question of the boarding or the day-school, and the author says he has verified that the opinion, which gains ground in the practice of the school, is that which Cüppers recommended in the National Congress of the German teachers in Cologne (1889), proclaiming and demonstrating the appropriateness of the boarding school for at least the first three years of the scholastic course. (Page 83.)

VII. *The co-education of the sexes and the religious instruction.*

The author seems opposed to the first, not only for social-ethic reasons already expressed by him, but also because the observations which he has made abroad confirm him in the opinion and fix the idea in his mind that the advantages do not result from it on which they base their argument for co-education in Northern Europe and America. (Page 96.) But what of the economic reasons? He does not speak of these.

He shows himself to be something of a misogynist as regards the didactic value of woman (page 98). He concludes that co-education is still a problem of pedagogy (page 100); and hence in a matter of such importance it is prudent to remain *in statu quo ubi.* But if it is a problem, it is surely fit for discussion.

In regard to the so called religious instruction, the author is absolutely opposed to what they do in America, where they mean to give *unsectarian* instruction; what he says on page 105 requires serious thought. He concludes that the way in which religious instruction is given in America to the deaf amounts to nothing. (One might observe, however, that the confessional and ritual instruction *as given in Italy* is only a superficial varnish for the poor deaf-mute, so that if the American deaf "are rather indifferent in religious matters" (page 106), in Italy they are decidedly rebellious, soon becoming atheists.)

VIII. *Physical education.*

Here Professor Ferreri cannot find words sufficient to say all the good he would like to of the free, physical education, as

practiced in America, with its physical, intellectual, and moral advantages; and he makes a sad comparison with the systematic, painful, timorous, rickety one of Italy. But what can be expected of principals who are rickety in body and mind, infirm from age and from a false education? Ferreri says well to his countrymen: "One must in some way or other, sooner or later, come to a radical transformation of our system of education, and the reformation should be based above all upon the liberty of the children in their recreation, their games, and in the confidence openly expressed in their initiative" (page 114). But... ....but we need "the ability of the artist, who, in this case, is the teacher, the artist of the human soul." Never will there be such educators as those above mentioned.

IX. *The preparation of the teacher of the deaf.*

Here also are songs of praise, although it would seem to displease him a little that "women are in the majority as teachers in the institutions and schools for the deaf." Notwithstanding this apparent misogyny, he affirms that, "as regards the intellectual instruction of the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded, one must recognize the fact that women are best adapted for this object." (Page 124.)

Many of the American colleagues ought to read attentively what is written on page 132 and the following pages, in regard to the failure, or almost failure, of the Oral method with them, and which is summed up in the answer of Hirsch, given years ago to the teachers of Belgium: *"Vous la methode orale ne l'avez jamais applique,"*—understanding of course *comme il faut* or *faudrait.* (You have never practiced the Oral method as it ought to be practiced.)

X. *The cause of the deaf and the means for propagandism in America.*

"When one considers the great progress made in the cause of the deaf in the United States in a comparatively brief space of time, compared with the nations of Europe, the mind of the observer seeks to discover the cause," (page 141). So this chapter begins.

There is one cause alone and that fundamental. It consists in the spirit of the American laws, which do not make such sub-

tile distinctions as they do here in Europe, between charitable institutions and places of education. In the United States, first the impulse for instruction arises, and then the obligation, not illusory, of an elementary instruction for *all* children, whether they are in a normal condition of mind and body or not.

In regard to the means used, the author mentions the special press, occasional and periodical, the meetings, and the congresses; and he speaks most favorably of the Volta Bureau, of which, and of its illustrious founder, Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, as also of its active superintendent, Mr. John Hitz, he speaks diffusively and, for his Italian readers, most completely. American self-respect may rest well satisfied as to the justice done her.

XI. *Public commencement exercises.*

One cannot say as much for this chapter. Prof. Ferreri—like the writer, who for reasons of age and of an earlier experience, was first to rebel—is from deep conviction opposed to public commencement exercises, and the abolition of them in the Institute of Siena is owing exclusively to his wisdom and pedagogical competence. It was for him truly amazing that these unworthy spectacles should still continue in the United States, while in Europe, and even in Italy, they are now limited to a few charlatans, who, alas are never lacking in any institution, but especially in those which are applied to the alleviation of human misery.

XII. *Some didactic questions.*

After saying that he would not dare to affirm any thing concerning the scientific principles, he adds that "the colleagues of America go farther than we do in the practical part." (Page 175.)

He notes two advantages which the colleagues across the Atlantic have: 1st, the material and moral organization of the school; 2nd, the much greater length of the scholastic course.

After this he treats, *ex professo*, "some of the most vital questions and of general interest for our school," and these are five:

1. Pronunciation of speech;
2. Teaching of language;

3. Love of reading;
4. Matter of general culture;
5. Auricular teaching.

As important questions of special didactics are treated here, which it is not possible to speak of in an exhaustive manner in a bibliographical sketch, we leave to the experts in the art of instructing the deaf the duty and right to sift and discuss, if necessary, the reasons for the constant increase of this instruction, upon which the last word has not yet been spoken, especially in America.

XIII and XIV. *Education of the deaf-blind. Helen Keller.*

In these last two chapters Professor Ferreri speaks diffusively of the care which they take in the United States of these unfortunate children, who are deprived of sight and hearing. He treats of the methods of this special branch of instruction and of the results. He speaks of Laura Bridgman and of Helen Keller, to the last of whom he dedicates an entire chapter of seventeen pages. Even the unprofessional will read with pleasure of this wonderful girl, already famous in Italy, but still judged with that suspicious doubt which arises from notices from afar and not easily verified. The writer, for example, only after the verbal assurance of the colleague Dr. Gallaudet, was induced to write a long article for the compilation of the great *Dictionary of Pedagogy* (Milan, Dr. F. Vallardi—*Keller*), with the portrait of the girl and of Miss Sullivan, to whom at the end I addressed these words: "Dear Miss Sullivan, if your Helen is not a natural prodigy, who are you, pray, who make such prodigies?" saying this as it is not possible to say: *Hic Rhodus, hic salta !* But Ferreri has now dissipated every doubt, if there still remained the shadow of one. Also, for us, the success of this instruction is a psychological battle won ever the boasting sensualism of the Aristotelian aphroism: *"Nihil est in intellectu quod prius non fuerit in sensu,"* to which one should add with Leibniz, *"praeter intellectum ipsum,"* and Miss Keller proves with facts that intellect is all, if she can, independently of the principal senses, elaborate such a wealth of thought, together with the highest education of the noblest sentiments.

The copious Appendix (pages 257-378) is composed of most important articles for our history, our pedagogy, and our didactics, as is sufficiently proved by the mention of the general title, which corresponds well to the contents: "*Some articles on actual questions of Pedagogy and Didactics in relation to the instruction of the Deaf in America.*"[1]

In regard to the interesting book of Helen Keller, we also must lament with Ferreri that we could not have an Italian translation, for we are persuaded that there must be much to learn from it, also for the solution of various psychological problems.....

This is the volume now published by our colleague, Professor G. Ferreri, a volume which in our special literature will remain like something monumental for its special importance, as such for Italy and Europe as for America, the cause of the deaf thus truly becoming intermondane. To recommend the careful reading of this book to the colleagues on both sides of the Atlantic, would be placing in doubt—at least—their interest and sincere affection for this education, for a cause which today touches every noble heart in every land "where tears are shed for great misfortune."

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[1]For the titles of these articles see the REVIEW, December, 1903.

SIXTH MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION OF GERMAN TEACHERS OF THE DEAF, HELD AT FRANKFURT-ON-THE-MAIN, SEPTEMBER 28--OCTOBER 1, 1903.[1]

Favored by the conditions of the weather and of the surroundings, this congress proved an unqualified success in every respect. The golden light of ideal autumn days seemed to cast a halo over the quaint but busy streets of the ancient city of Frankfurt, rich in historic memories of the by gone days when the emperors of Germany, or, as it was then called, the Holy Roman Empire, were crowned within its walls. And, as in nature, so it was in the hearts of the many earnest men who had come hither to discuss matters of the gravest import to one class of our suffering fellow beings, the deaf; who had met to draw from mutual intercourse new strength and inspiration for the sacred cause to which they had devoted their life's work: a sunny optimism was the prevailing characteristic of all the meetings; every one seemed to be impressed with the idea that there is good progress, that the number of members of the association is constantly increasing, that not a single Province or District association in Germany was unrepresented, that the governments of the principal states of Germany had sent representatives; 350 delegates had met in all, some of them visitors from beyond the confines of Germany.

The first preliminary meeting was held on the 28th of September, in the large hall of the society "Allemania," where after appropriate musical exercises, Miss Emily Vatter, the daughter of the veteran director of the Frankfurt Institution, and the host of the congress, dressed to represent the city of Frankfurt, recited a beautiful poem of welcome. She was followed by Director Vatter himself who in eloquent words bade his guests

[1]Prepared from Blatter fur Taubstummenbildung, by H. Jacobson, Washington.

welcome, and stated that this congress should be distinguished by its practical character, and that he was prepared to take his colleagues to his workshop, and show to them the character and results of his work. After various other speeches of welcome and of greeting, the order of the day for the two principal meetings was arranged, and carried out on the two following days, as proposed.

These two meetings were held in the beautiful hall of the Frankfurt Lodge. The exercises on the 29th of September commenced with a practical illustration of Director Vatter's method. He introduced his articulation class consisting of six pupils, three boys and three girls, who have been under instruction for four months. The next class, two boys, pronounced greetings and short sentences from conversational language. Then followed a class consisting of six boys and one girl who had begun their third year of schooling, and gave an exhibition of object instruction. The next group, seven boys and four girls of the fourth and fifth years, were examined in local geography (the Taunus Mountains near Frankfurt). When the last group was introduced—six boys and five girls—Director Vatter left it to the audience to choose the subject of examination; and as the majority decided in favor of "history," an episode from the Thirty Years' War was discussed. The same group finally gave an exhibition of their knowledge of religion. These exercises lasted an hour and a quarter, and gave to the audience a clear idea of the work done in each class, and an unmistakable proof of the incomparable zeal and the masterly and skillful teaching of Director Vatter, and an insight into the method so energetically advocated by him and invariably followed by him in the instruction of the deaf.

After these practical exercises had been concluded, the programme as fixed on the previous day, was carried out. The first speaker was Director Danger from Emden. His subject was, "The education of the deaf for human society." The leading ideas of his address were the following:

1. The aim of education for human society is in our institutions for the deaf, (a) to advance the deaf so that they may become independent members of the communities of this *present*

world, and (b) to show them the way, and accompany them on the way which leads to the heavenly home.

2. Within the narrow limits of the time of schooling, this aim cannot be fully reached. This, therefore, makes it an imperative duty for all institutions for the deaf to extend aid and counsel to the pupils even after they have left the institution. This should be done: (a) by furthering the industrial education of the pupils after they have left school; (b) by aid and counsel in all the various conditions of life; (c) by having the institutions for the deaf take an active part in the spiritual welfare of their former pupils.

We give the following extracts from Mr. Danger's address: If we speak of independent position, we mean that the deaf are not to become a burden to boards of charities, that they are able to earn their daily bread, that they fill the place in human society to which their nature entitles them, that they gain that strength of character which enables them to be no longer servants of men—to speak with the apostle, and not to be swayed to and fro by every wind of doctrine. To reach this object it is necessary that we should give speech to our deaf children. Here the exercise of the spoken word of every day life is of special importance. This exercise is often neglected; and in proof of his assertion, Mr. Danger cited a number of enormities or monstrosities of language which he had found in letters from his pupils. If the deaf, after having left school, are to become truly independent members of human society, they must feel thoroughly at their ease in this society. To accomplish this, it is necessary that during the time spent at school they do not become estranged from the manners and customs of their home. These customs frequently differ very much in the different parts of one and the same province; and the institution must have some regard to these differences. In districts where the children will in after life follow some industrial calling, more attention should be paid to drawing and similar branches, than in regions where the children will in all probability follow agricultural pursuits, or find positions as help on farms. Regard should also be had to the idiom or dialect of each region, if the deaf are to make themselves understood in every day life. But some of the deaf are,

in consequence of insufficient capacity, not able to be educated in spoken language. The best plan would be, after a few years of schooling, to separate them from the mentally normal pupils, and have them instructed in mimics and written language in separate institutions. Special regard will have to be taken to accustom the pupils to take delight in a life of work.

Instruction in religion should be a season of consecration. Much knowledge of many subjects is not what is needed; the spirit of Christ must dwell in the institution.

As regards education for practical life, Mr. Danger said: We have schools for the further education of pupils who have left the institution. Such schools may prove a blessing to former pupils of institutions in large cities; but the great mass of the deaf will not be benefitted by such schools arranged after a given model. This can be done only by adding a ninth and tenth year of schooling, so that—following the example of the practical Dutch and Americans—the teaching-school and the work-school mutually supplement each other. Our pupils are to follow that calling through which they are most likely to gain an independent position in the society of their home, their own country, or province. But to learn a trade requires money; here the premium offered by the government to persons who take up deaf persons in their workshops, comes in very opportunely; but this premium should not merely be held out as a possible contingency, but it should be firmly promised when a contract is made between a master and a deaf apprentice. Agricultural pursuits to which the deaf are particularly adapted are not taken into consideration in the granting of premiums by the government. For the deaf with weak capacities it would be best if they were gathered into a colony connected with some institution for the deaf.

In large cities there is no need of spiritual care by the teachers of the deaf. There it is the duty of the church to appoint a special pastor for the deaf; but such spiritual care is a difficult matter among the deaf scattered throughout the country. As a measure worthy of imitation we must consider the arrangement which will go into effect in the Province of Hannover in 1904. With the aid of the teachers of the deaf six times a year divine service is to be held in various cities for adult deaf, the teachers

to work hand in hand with the pastor of the place. This, however, does not exhaust the activity of the minister, which consists in exercising a continuous spiritual influence on the adult deaf in his congregation.

The discussion on Mr. Danger's paper which followed revealed the fact that all those present in the main points agreed with Mr. Danger, and simply brought out some practical hints. One of the speakers expressed the opinion that wherever possible the deaf should remain in the family. The deaf could never in the full sense of the word become independent or self-supporting; it was even an open question whether they should be allowed to marry. Another speaker called attention to the undoubted fact that there is a growing tendency among the adult deaf to flock to the great centers of industry, where there is a better chance to earn a living; and this tendency is something that will have to be reckoned with.

Wednesday, the 30th of September, must be considered the great day of the congress, as on that day Dr. P. Schumann, of Leipzig, delivered his masterly address on "The scientific training of teachers of the deaf." The speaker said in part: Although the subject is confined to *scientific* training, this does not imply that practical training is not essential; but it does imply that the theoretical basis of the training is not what it should be, and that a reform is urgently needed. The idea has been and is still very prevalent that an extensive scientific training is altogether unnecessary. We find this view set forth in many documents from olden times. At the international congress of teachers of the deaf at Brussels, the President, de Haerne, even went so far as to state that in his opinion the education of the public school teacher was a degree higher than what was needed for a teacher of the deaf. And still it is nowhere so necessary to let intelligence and understanding precede doing and action as in that complicated field which, by an artificial separation, we describe as instruction and education. To understand this better it is only necessary to compare the low condition of the public schools in the days when the teachers were trained only in the most mechanical manner, with our present most efficient public schools with their eight classes. This development shows that the training of

the teacher is the true basis of all education, but that every age sets up its own ideal of such training.

Our schools, the schools for the deaf, are places where the character is to be formed, where man is to be influenced in the totality of his being, where he is to receive his imprint for life. And the estimation of our work must be governed by the difficulties of the educational problem and the height of the educational object which is aimed at. These difficulties can be overcome, this problem can be solved only by men who have received the very best training for their calling, who bring to their work the necessary scientific and practical armor and weapons, men who gain their most powerful ally in their race towards the goal, viz., personal interest for their calling and active love for it, from a deeper understanding and a clearer appreciation of the peculiarities of those among whom they are to work.

Thus we formulate, as our *first axiom*, the following: "The lofty character of the educational task and the difficulties inherent in the instruction of the deaf, justify the demand for sound scientific training of the teachers of the deaf, to go hand in hand with their practical training." It is true that in many respects we are far ahead of the venerable veterans of the education of the deaf of the last century and a half. But much is needed yet, especially as regards a knowledge of pedagogics. The teacher of the deaf must come in touch with modern pedagogics. And the efficiency of modern pedagogics is based on modern psychology. For the teacher of the deaf, above many others, it is of the utmost importance. For with him the question is not only, to gather, secure, regulate, and fix a certain series of ideas by means of a given mental element, but first to develop the substratum of mental intercourse, speech; and, as the natural gate of entrance is closed, to follow psychic routes which in normal beings are impossible. The entire educational activity which is directed towards the production and exercise of speech requires an exact knowledge of the complicated psycho-physiological nature of the functions of speech. Right here the psychology of speech has through investigations furnished excellent results, more especially by taking into careful account the motoric element, and the sensations of motion, rest, touch, and feeling. The manifold

psychic abnormalities, quite apart from the hindrances caused by the missing of speech, can hardly be properly judged and successfully influenced without a knowledge of psycho-pathology. In the same way teachers of the deaf should have a knowledge of the psychology of the child, as they must presuppose a primitive mental condition and an abnormally confined circle of ideas and thoughts, as they are obliged to artificially imitate the period of the child's development of speech both as regards its external and interior phase.

Psychology is, therefore, the very pillar of our training for our important calling, the education of the deaf. But our calling requires, besides intensified general training, a knowledge of other fields which, above everything else, are to serve in acquiring the technical part of speech. It is necessary to have an exact knowledge of the construction and functions of the organs of the senses which are destined to receive speech, the ear as the normal organ of hearing, the eye and the so-called muscle sense which take the place of the ear of the deaf. But the apparatus of speech must also be recognized as a working organ. All measures of instruction in articulation are based on phonetics; and its basis is the physiology of the voice. It may, therefore, be said that pedagogics, psychology, and physiology of the voice are the best foundation for the study of the real nature of deafness.

These studies of methods should be supplemented by a study of the history and literature of the education of the deaf. This study should not be confined to one nation; but a knowledge of foreign languages is urgently needed, which even from a general point of view is very desirable for a teacher of the deaf. Moreover, the building of language in the deaf demands a thorough knowledge of the laws of the mother tongue, of its grammar, varying use of words, and syntax, which can hardly be acquired without the aid of instruction in a foreign language, as only in the study of a foreign language the function of speech becomes so to speak an "objective act," subject to self-observation, analysis, and synthesis. As to the selection and number of foreign languages which should be included in the course of training of teachers of the deaf, opinions vary. Most of the German teach-

ers' seminaries provide for one foreign language, some for two.

On the basis of the above statements we formulate our *second axiom*, as follows: "As a basis of didactics and special methodics there is needed for teachers of the deaf: a knowledge of general pedagogics in scientific form, a knowledge of psychology, above all the psychology of the child, psycho-pathology and physiology of speech, a knowledge of the construction and functions of the organs and senses of speech, and of the phonetics based thereon. For general methodical reasons and with the view to further the absolutely necessary study of the history and literature of the education of the deaf, a knowledge of foreign languages (Latin and French, or Latin and English, or French and English) is desirable."

Such a training can be acquired only by uniform and systematic methods of instruction. Prussia has been the pioneer in this respect, as teachers of the deaf in that state have been systematically trained since 1811; and Prussia's example has been followed by some of the other German states. But what is needed now is a central institution for training teachers of the deaf connected with a school of practice, founded and supported by the Imperial Government. This institution should have a two years' course; and the examining committee should consist of two university professors and two teachers of the deaf, with a representative of the government as chairman; examinations in languages to be conducted by a philologist.

This leads us to the *third axiom*, viz.: "The various institutions at present existing in a number of states of the German Empire for training teachers of the deaf, do not fully meet the requirements of our times. Above everything else, the aim should be to connect a course for teachers of the deaf with the University."

The *fourth axiom* is closely connected with the preceding one, and is formulated as follows: "It is recommended that a central institution for training teachers of the deaf—connected with a school of practice—be established in some city where there is a University. The course should be three years, and every one aspiring to become a teacher of the deaf should attend this institution for at least one year, and pass an examination."

This leads us to the *fifth axiom*, viz.: "This extension of the course of training naturally demands a reform of the existing regulations for examinations. Compulsory examinations with higher requirements should be introduced; and only those who pass these examinations satisfactorily should be admitted as teachers of the deaf."

Although there was some discussion of minor points in Dr. Schumann's address, the various axioms laid down therein were adopted by the congress with some insignificant modifications; and it was resolved to transmit a printed copy of the same to the government of every state of the German Empire.

Mr. Göpfert, of Leipzig, made a report on the German Museum of deaf-mute education, which appears to be in a flourishing condition, and has received numerous valuable contributions from private individuals and public institutions both at home and abroad, the library alone having been increased by 367 volumes during the last year. Among the most valuable contributions are mentioned those from the Volta Bureau at Washington.

Before adjourning *sine die* the congress resolved that the next place of meeting should be Königsberg, the capital of the Province of East Prussia, famous through its university, and for its being the home of the great German philosopher Kant.

In the afternoon most of the members of the congress paid a visit to the Frankfurt institution for the deaf. The new and elegant building, surrounded by a beautiful and well kept garden of three acres, is situated far out in the north-eastern part of the city. The building was erected by the city at a cost of 288,000 mark ($68,544), and a further appropriation of 25,000 mark ($5,950) was made by the city for furniture, etc.

In the evening the congress came to a close at a banquet, where speeches of a serious and humorous nature, songs, and recitations made the hours till midnight pass all but too fast.

The Frankfurt congress has gone into history, and will always be remembered as a landmark in the development of the German education of the deaf, as a meeting of earnest men who, it is true, could not pass laws, but who made recommendations, more especially with regard to the training of teachers, which are sure to bear some practical fruit in the future.

AN EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING IDIOMATIC ENGLISH TO THE DEAF.

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The following paper is the narrative of actual experience in the teaching of idioms and colloquial phrases to a class of deaf children, therefore the readers of the REVIEW are asked to make allowance for a greater use of the personal equation than is ordinarily fitting in an article written for general perusal.

My attention was drawn to the difficulty of teaching idiomatic English to the deaf, as well as to its importance, at the very beginning of my work as a teacher, twenty years ago. It was my good fortune to be associated during the first year of my teaching, at Delavan, Wisconsin, with Mr. J. J. Murphy, and for several months he was my room-mate. Mr. Murphy had been deaf from infancy, and he had experienced all the difficulties of mastering idiomatic English. By more than ordinary perseverance, thought, and study, he had attained to a command of language such as few in his circumstances achieve. He said that his greatest stumbling blocks had been those phrases that conform to no general rule of language construction, yet which form the idiom of the language, and which make all the difference between easy and natural diction and the stiff and awkward expressions, otherwise grammatical, yet lacking in idiom, which are so common among those deaf from infancy and among foreigners in the earlier stages of their study of English.

A practical result of our frequent talks upon this subject was that between us we began making a collection of phrases of all sorts, from the simplest to the most complex. Had our association with each other continued, we should ultimately have made an attempt to classify our collection. But the succeeding year saw me transferred to Minnesota, and our interesting joint study was brought to an end. Between us we had made a collection of some 1,500 phrases, perhaps the largest proportion of them being of a simple nature, such as can be taught during the earlier years of a deaf child's course.

When I began to teach in the Minnesota School for the Deaf in the fall of 1885, I was placed in charge of the highest manual class. It was a composite class of different grades. A considerable number of the pupils were "semi-mutes," whose command of language was fairly idiomatic; therefore I did not have the best opportunity for teaching the use of phrases and idioms. However, I gave the class frequent language exercises in idioms, by selecting eight or ten from my note book, explaining the meaning when necessary, and having the pupils incorporate them in sentences on paper. These were corrected and returned. As to the practical benefit to the pupils of this exercise I cannot say. But one of the brighter pupils in the class, one deaf from infancy, told me in later years, that that particular language exercise had been the most profitable to him of any he had had during his entire course.

During succeeding years, although I frequently made use of my collection of phrases and idioms in miscellaneous language work, yet I never undertook systematic teaching in that line. My class was always of the same composite nature, with a sprinkling of "semi-mutes," usually with some preparing for college.

Not until two years ago did I determine to take up the regular and systematic teaching of idioms as an experiment. Credit for this determination is due to that able educator, Mr. W. A. Caldwell, of the California School for the Deaf. His article, "Understanding versus Expression," appearing in the Annals for January, 1902, was the source of the inspiration. Moreover, for the first time in years I had a class with no "semi-mutes" in it, and practically of the same grade as regarded language. I tested the class as to their comprehension of some common phrases and idioms, as suggested by Mr. Caldwell. The test showed almost complete ignorance of the true meaning of some of the commonest colloquial expressions, which fall from our lips unconsciously, without effort, in ordinary conversation or narrative. When I called for the meaning of the phrase in signs, the tendency of most of the pupils was to give the word for word interpretation, which was usually miles away from the true meaning of the phrase as a whole. And therein lies the great difficulty of teaching idioms to the deaf. The component

words are usually simple and well-known, and the pupil is apt to be satisfied with knowing the meanings of the words, and does not realize that the combination means an entirely different thing from what the separate words do. Since I took up this work two years ago, I have brought about eleven hundred idioms and phrases before the class by means of illustrative sentences, and not more than five per cent. of the entire number were comprehended by any one in the class without some explanation. When one considers that this class is the highest in the school, does it not indicate the need of some such study and teaching of idioms as Mr. Caldwell suggested?

I will now state as briefly as possible my method of procedure in teaching these phrases and idioms. I selected from fifteen to thirty of the expressions, and wrote illustrative sentences upon the blackboard. The pupils copied them into note books with pen and ink. Then, with the class looking on, I went over them, asking for the meaning, and giving it when the class failed to do so, which was usually the case. The next day I added more to the list, and also reviewed those of the preceding day. I urged the pupils to read over the collection in their note books whenever they had spare moments, and try to fix the meanings in their minds. I did all I could to stimulate their pride and ambition, by telling them that if they learned these idioms, they would be able to use language "like hearing people."

The collection in the note books grew rapidly. I asked the pupils to be on the lookout for idioms in the course of their reading out of school, and to write down on paper and hand to me any they came across. The results were highly gratifying, and in my collection of 1,100 as many as two or three hundred were furnished to me by the pupils themselves. I also told the pupils that if they felt sure that they understood the idioms they should try to use them in letter and composition writing, and in other forms of language work. Some of them began to do so, but very slowly. For two or three months I made no attempt to have the pupils write the idioms as a school exercise. But finally I felt that their understanding of many of them was sufficient to warrant an attempt at their systematic use. Accordingly, I pro-

cured a large number of blank cards, and on each card I wrote three idioms. Each pupil was given one card and directed to write sentences upon the blackboard. I went about correcting as they wrote. If one pupil failed on one or more of the idioms assigned, some other pupil was told to write a sentence. At the end of this exercise, which usually occupied twenty or thirty minutes, there were thirty or forty correct sentences on the blackboard illustrating the right use of as many different phrases and idioms. The pupils were then given five or ten minutes to read over carefully all the sentences on the blackboard.

The method thus outlined was followed throughout the year, and more than a thousand phrases and idioms were copied with their illustrative sentences by the pupils, reviewed several times, and then incorporated in sentences on the blackboard, thus combining understanding with use.

The results of the work then began to appear in a highly satisfactorily manner. I noticed with pleasure that the pupils began to use the idioms spontaneously in their compositions, letters, and other language exercises. I never failed to commend such instances in order to stimulate the pupils to persevere.

Last fall I had a new class. I required the pupils to copy all the idiomatic sentences from former note books, and then proceeded as before. In reviewing the phrases and idioms to test the understanding of the class, I make use of signs, a proceeding which many readers of the REVIEW may condemn. But it is a sure and easy way to discover if the pupils have the correct idea, for a simple gesture or two often gives a clearer comprehension of the spirit of the phrase than a synonym or a lengthy explanation. And synonyms are not easy to find for all idioms.

Below I present a list of about eight hundred of the phrases and idioms that I have used during the past two years. One who cares to institute a comparison will find probably half or more identical with those in a list given by Mr. W. G. Jenkins, and printed in the Annals for April, 1889. In any list of several hundred common phrases and idioms prepared by different persons, there will be more or less sameness. My own list of 1,500 phrases and idioms was prepared in conjunction with Mr.

Murphy in 1884. I make this statement in order to ward off a possible charge of plagiarism.

A

at outs
a world of trouble
a hard nut to crack
at odds
as a matter of course
a cat and dog life
at the dead of night
a full house
a hard time of it
at stake
at one's time of life
a wolf at bay
all at sea
at any rate
all the rage
after the manner of
at most
at all events
at best
an axe to grind
all the world over
all the year round
all one to
a drop in the bucket
a short cut
at the lowest rung of the ladder
as the crow flies
apple-pie order
at one's expense
at one's ease
at loss
at call
at small pay
at heart
at all times
at all hours
all sorts of
all in one's power
as one pleases
at death's door
at a fearful rate
arm-in-arm
apt to
at one's tongue's end
a peck of trouble
all the same to
at a disadvantage
about to be
at arm's length

B

by fits and starts
bring down the house
below par
beat about the bush
bound for
bear in mind
bear up
by all means
by turns
by word of mouth
beyond question
beyond recovery
beyond praise
bring about
bear examination
bear telling
bear repeating
break off
break out
break down
break away
bone of contention
break (a horse)
beneath contempt
beneath one's notice
broken up
bear fruit
bite off more than one can chew

back out
back down
by one's self
bury the hatchet
build castles in the air
bring on
bid fair
burst out laughing
burst into tears
bring up the rear
bring up at
bring up against
blood is up
born days
by the week, month, etc.
by the piece
by way of
by name
by sight
blood run cold
bury one's face in one's hands
beside one's self
by far
by no means
beat one's way
by chance
by nature
by main strength
behind time
before long
bring to light
better days (seen)
black and blue
believe —— to be
back number
but for
break into (a run, etc.)

C

can not find the heart to
change hands
come by
cast down
come to a standstill
come to grief
cut up (play)
cut and dried
calls for (needs)
carried off by (died of)
change one's mind
come short of
cut it short
cut the acquaintance of
catch up with
catch it (get into trouble)
choose sides
cut across
cut out
call on
call off
cast a glance at
cut to the heart
come across
come high to
come to hand
catch one's breath
chip of the old block
chip on one's shoulder
chip in
come true
cast anchor
carry out
carry on
carry through
come about
cost one dear
catch a tartar
conscience pricked him
count on
cannot sleep a wink

D

die down
drop off
dead drunk
dead in earnest
dead set against
do away with

do without
down upon one
draw to a close
drive one mad
drive a nail into one's coffin
drop one a line
dart up a tree
drag by (time)
dead beat
"doctored" food, etc.
day by day
due to
draw near
drive one to
do up

E

eat one's words
eaten up with
end is near
ever so much
every now and then
every little helps
easy-going
empty-handed
eye-witness
elbow-room
early and late
eat one's fill
en route
eat away
eat through
eyes kindled
eyes flashed fire

F

feel at home
fly into a rage
fall short of
fall in with
fall away
fall out (quarrel)
fritter away
fast friend
fall asleep
figure out
fool with
fall behind
fall to
for example
for instance
for the time being
for all one knows
few and far between
fall off
fly open
from lip to lip
from time to time
fly at
for one's age
face the consequences
feel a sense of awe
fears are entertained
feel put out
for dear life
full of questions
floor one
find one's self in a hole
fight shy of
for sure
for a fact
for lack of
for fun
for show
far and wide
far and near
far from bad, etc.
far more
from head to foot
from top to toe
from now on
from place to place
from bad to worse
from hand to mouth
from one's standpoint
from one extreme to the other
from force of habit
feet foremost

free and easy
free for all
feather in one's cup
fix in one's mind
fit to
fall a victim to

G

good taste
go hard
go halves
gone for good
give place to
give way (break)
give way to (lose self-control)
give one's self away
go without
give one's self up to
go off (gun)
gala day
go down (decrease)
go out (bridges by a flood)
gnash one's teeth
gain the upper hand
get one's back up
get used to
go to law
get the hang of
get hold of
go abroad
get at
get through
get rid of
get along
get on
get over
grind one's teeth
give out (make known)
give out (strength, etc.)
go one's way
give vent to
give rein to
give loose to
give heed to
give rise to
give one to understand
goose is cooked

H

hold one's tongue
hit the nail on the head
hand to hand
hand in hand
handed down
high-minded
hold one's temper
has a mind to
have a hand in
have a finger in the pie
hang together
hard up
hard by
height of folly
high time
heel over head
have one's own way
have no business to
have on
have a will of one's own
hagdog look
half seas over
head for
have —— tested, etc.
have an eye to
head on
have an eye on
happy-go-lucky
hopes are entertained
he is a brick
have no backbone
have the blues
hale and hearty
hold over
head first
hand and glove
hand over hand
help one's self
hang one's head

have one's hands full
have a care
have no bounds
help one out
hold aloof from
have reason to
have a thirst for

I

in state
in good time
in dead earnest
in honor bound
in round numbers
in less than no time
in the nick of time
in the course of time
in due time
in person
in the long run
in all respects
in the main
in error
in doubt
in suspense
in full force
in spite of
in keeping with
in and out
in a —— mood
in the public eye
in high favor
in a sorry plight
it pays to
in a tight fix
in mortal fear
in sight of
in want
in want of
in the same pickle
in short order
in point of
in fun
inside out
ins and outs
in view of
in order to
in the face of
in the hope of
in fact
in accordance with
in case
in the event of
in any case
in general
in particular
in consideration of
in a rage
in broad daylight
in great measure
in vain
in the meantime
in hopes
in behalf of
in straits
in peril of one's life
in a body
in high feather
in the way of
in secret
in private
in time to come
in time past
in detail
in a —— frame of mind
in defiance of
in one's heart
in demand
in turn
in leading strings
in the form of
in cold blood
in the first place
in the shape of
in process of time
in store for
it is likely
it will not do
it does not matter

K

keep one's hand in
keep body and soul together
keep up with
kill time
keep thinking
keep clear of
keep up one's spirits
know better than to do it
keep an eye on
keep out of sight
keep a still tongue in one's head
keep the wolf from the door
killing look
knock about
keep one in the dark

L

look confused
lay their heads together
light-headed
look it up
lend a hand
laugh in one's sleeve
lay down their arms
lay off
lose heart
leave over
look over
look sour
look put out
look hard at
long for
lay to rest
lift up one's voice
look of — stole over one's face
look grave
long-winded
lose no time
laugh with the rest
light of foot
look out for number one
look black
live coal
lifelong
last moments
look after
look up (hunt for)
look on the bright side of
look on
little or no
lead to
lead the life of
lose sight of
lose one's temper
leave off
leave alone
leave to die, etc.
leave —— in anger, etc.
leave in the lurch
leave for
let one off
let up
live under
live to be
lay up
lay before
lie north of, etc.
lie at anchor

M

make up one's mind
make yourself at home
make room for
make out
make up (quarrel)
make up (supply a lack)
make headway
make light of
make the best of
make the most of
make short work of
make much of
more than a match for
milk and water (person)
make a hit
make sure

many a
make believe
make love to
make out to
make one's hair stand on end
make faces
make an end of
make fun of
miss the train
minute account of
mouth water
make a hard fight against
make public
maiden effort
make friends with
mad with grief, etc.
meet one's eyes
make for
meet one's match

N

never mind
next to nothing
next door to
nip in the bud
not care a cent
no joke
no use crying over spilt milk
not used to
not a bit
no royal road to learning

O

on all fours
out of work
odds and ends
over head and ears in
on hand
off hand
on the war path
open-hearted
open-handed
open-mouthed
on short notice
on time
on tiptoe
on the point of
on the sly
out of temper
out of fashion
out of place
out of print
out of keeping with
out at the elbows
out of season
over time
out of money
out of love
out of respect
on the spur of the moment
out of patience
on purpose
on business
on foot
on file
on the whole
open fire
out of date
on the turf
out of power
on the fence
overhear
overlook
one-sided
of late
on the occasion of
off duty
on duty
of one mind
of the same mind
on good terms
on second thought
on the alert
on the lookout for
on the road
out of reach
owing to
of late years

on the part of
out of the question
outright
overdue
out of one's way

P

put up (at a hotel)
put up with (endure)
put up (fruit, etc.)
play the fool
play the part of
put on airs
promise to be
past all hope
passing strange
put to death
put to sleep
pitched battle
put on trial
put to bed
put to shame
put to the blush
put an end to
pitch one's tent
pay one back
play sick
piece of one's mind
piece of good fortune
put to a trade
pay one's respects to
penny wise, pound foolish
pass pleasant hours
pay one back in one's own coin
put one in mind of
pour oil on the waters
presence of mind
part company
pick a quarrel
pick flaws in
pitted against
put one off the track
plant one's self
pay in advance

Q

quit studying, etc.

R

run through (a book, etc.)
run out of (some necessity)
run a risk
ride hard
right away
run in debt
run down (clock)
run one down
ready money
rests with one to
right along
run after (fashions, etc.)
run to weeds
run one's eyes over
run across
road runs through
reach the age limit
ripe old age

S

struck dumb
second-hand
stand high
set about
set for (work)
stand by
short of
scot free
set on foot
set eyes on
stand up for
stand treat
strike a light
serve one right
steal a march on
speak to one's face
steal away
see to it

stick together
sleep over it
set in order
set a going
set on fire
set fire to
set down (write)
set one against the other
set one up in business
set a trap for
set one's teeth on edge
set out
stand fire
stand the fire of (eyes)
scrape acquaintance with
shut off
stand in awe of
show the white feather
sober down
show off
skirt the shore
see through
set one's heart on
shake one's head
show one's colors
sidelong look
swallow one's anger, etc.
sore need of
set in (began)

T.

take a joke
take in hand
take heart
take time
take breath
take in
that will do
ten to one
throw light on
through thick and thin
time on one's hands
time and again
take a drop too much
take the law into one's hands
take pains
take steps to
turn out (go out)
turn out (of road)
turn out (result)
turn out (stock, etc.)
turn-out (equipage)
turn the tables on
take place
take sides
take interest in
take root
take cold
take effect
take aim
take part in
take up arms
take to heart
take to one's heels
talk in one's cups
think much of
throw into the shade
till doomsday
take by surprise
tied to his mother's apron strings
time slips by
to and for
turn out the light
take to (drawn toward)
turn up the light
turn up one's nose at
turn up (appear)
turn down the light
turn down (a person)
take a look at
turn one's eyes on
turn one's back on
tickled to death
true blue
true as steel
true as gospel
tip-top
take a liking to

take wing
turn out (produce or manufacture)
take the hint
take the trouble to
take one's stand
to all purpose
through fire and water
too hard on
toe the mark

U

under way
uphill work
up to the mark
up to something
up in arms

W

win one over
wear and tear
within reach
wheel around
walk-over
with the naked eye
walk in one's sleep
wait a bit
weigh anchor
well off
well-to-do
wear out
with all one's might
worth while
wind up (make an end of)
well up in
with a high hand
wear on (time)
with open arms
well-thumbed
wash one's hands of
walk abreast

Y

you can depend on it
year in and year out
year after year
year by year

In the above list will be found common phrases, colloquialisms, idioms, and some expressions that possibly verge on vulgarisms or "slang." In the case of the last named, while I see no harm in teaching the pupils to understand them, yet I always take pains to caution them against using them indiscriminately, if at all.

I will now present some specimens of the spontaneous use of idioms by my present class, which I have been instructing in this line for only three months. Let the reader remember that all in the class are practically in the class of congenitally deaf, so far as language is concerned, and it is only an average class in intelligence.

One of the regular exercises in this school, a most profitable one too, is the reproduction of the morning chapel lectures. One morning recently, from thirteen written productions I picked

out seven instances of the spontaneous use of idioms that I had taught since fall. Here they are:

Poor people have no *ready money,* but they are wise and happy.

One who *gives himself up to* talking or neglecting his work, will never do good work *in the long run.*

If one thinks much of treasures, it makes him unhappy, and he gets into *a peck of trouble.*

He *did not mind* that they laughed at him.

It came to pass that gold was discovered in Alaska, and thousands of people *turned out* to get gold.

The boy was *in honor bound* to obey his mother.

He *held his temper.*

Following are a few taken from various sources, letters, compositions, etc., but all spontaneous:

Some of the people have died *from the effects of* starvation and hard work.

When school was out, he *set out* for home.

We sometimes play or talk *on the sly* when our teachers are gone. When the teachers come back, we *make believe* to study.

Once upon a time a boy who, etc.

The act of Lieutenant Hobson and his men was *beyond praise.*

We should try to remember our faults and to *do away with* them.

Daniel Boone *stole away* from the Indians.

He was *out of patience.*

At last his patience was *worn out.*

The French people were *in high feather.*

The Americans had to retreat for their powder *gave out.*

Arnold's plan would have *borne fruit* but for the capture of Andre.

They gave the stamp officers *a world of trouble.*

We were *dead tired.*

We had to *strike for* home in spite of the rain.

Our Superintendent gives, every Sunday afternoon, a short talk to the pupils on Old Testament history. The more advanced classes are required to reproduce these lectures in note books, which are then corrected by their teachers. My pupils often work in idioms in this language exercise. Here are a few specimens:

Samuel told them if they did not follow God, they would be oppressed *as a matter of course.*

Samuel *took a liking to* Jesse's oldest son.

Elisha always helped the Jews who were *in a fix.*

The Shunamite invited Elisha to stay with her *for the time being.*

Samson *paid* the Philistines back *in their own coin.*

The last one refers to Samson's burning the harvest fields of the Philistines in revenge for the burning of his wife's home. The following reads a little strangely in sacred narrative. It refers to David's going to the camp and telling his brothers that he wanted to fight against Goliath, and could beat him:

David's brothers said that he *talked through his hat.*

The following four instances are taken from the letter of one of the pupils, below the average of the class:

Thanksgiving was *a gala day.*

We *ate our fill* of turkey and other things.

We had a *tip-top time.*

Miss ——— took our teacher's place *for the time being.*

The above are but a few instances of a daily use of idioms by the pupils after only three months' systematic instruction. If such results can be obtained with an average class in so short a time, how much might not be done by pursuing the same course of instruction through several successive years?

To carry out this method of teaching idiomatic English through the school course, I would make a classification of phrases and idioms into three groups, the simplest ones for primary grades, more complex for intermediate grades, and the most difficult for advanced grades. Then, if teachers in each grade would take pains to teach the idioms adapted to that grade in some such systematic manner as I have here outlined, I feel that there would be results which would more than justify the plan. I have been teaching the deaf for twenty years, and have tried various methods for imparting a correct use of English. I can say that no method which I have ever tried has produced such satisfactory results in so short a time as the one here described. Moreover, no form of language study has ever been taken hold of by the pupils themselves with so much zeal. As one of my fellow teachers, to whom I showed some of the fore-

going specimens, remarked, it "limbers up" their language wonderfully.

Teachers of the deaf, instead of trying to simplify language by eliminating idioms, should rather aim to make it natural by introducing them whenever feasible. In giving directions to the class, or in making statements of any kind, spell, write, or speak just as you would to hearing children. Writing is the best method of all. Teachers should make more use of the blackboards. Whenever an incident occurs that gives opportunity for the use of an idiom, it should be written on the blackboard where all can see it, and it should be allowed to remain there as long as possible, so that the pupils may absorb it, as the more ambitious are sure to do.

We could all of us well afford to give more time to the teaching of idiomatic English and less to the teaching of history, geography, physics, etc., which have but little practical bearing on the out-of-school life of the great majority of our pupils. The greater the understanding and use of idiomatic English that the deaf obtain while at school, the greater will be their opportunity for adding to it, after leaving school, through the medium of newspapers, magazines, and books, which are so abundant and so easily obtainable in our day.

Elimination or avoidance of idioms in primary language work may simplify that work so far as grammatical structure of sentences goes, but it does not make the language natural. No language was ever well learned, or ever will be well-learned by too close an adherence to rules of grammar. The question before us is whether to teach simple and natural language, or simple and unnatural. The former may require more care, more patience, more correction, more repetition, but will not the achievement be worth all the effort?

A safe and general rule for all teachers of the deaf, whether in the primary, intermediate, or advanced grades, is this: When you wish to present a new thought, a new form of expression, to your class, give it in the simplest idiomatic English; never eliminate or avoid an idiom merely because it might interfere with grammatical analysis of the sentence.

THE DIVISION OF PUPILS IN THE INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF ACCORDING TO THEIR CAPACITY.

HUGO HOFFMANN, RATIBOR, GERMANY.

In all spheres of human activity progress shows itself in proposals to change existing conditions. It is of course the intention of those who are dissatisfied with the present state of affairs, to create something better; but frequently the intention is better than the ability to perform, and sometimes even, the change aimed at is simply a step backward. In fact, the accumulation of proposals for changes is an indication of the dissatisfaction with the imperfection of what has been accomplished, which makes itself felt here and there. Thus, also, in the matter of the instruction of the deaf, it will be observed that the dissatisfaction with present conditions, and the growing conviction how far our labor is behind the actual requirements of the age, show themselves in all sorts of proposals for improvement.

Since Hill's time, but more especially during the last twenty-five years, the desire for improved methods in the instruction and education of the deaf has made itself felt more and more; this is clearly a sign that the methods are still very far from perfection, that the external arrangements of our institutions do not meet even modest requirements, and that at this very day the condition of the instruction of the deaf is anything but satisfactory.

The fact that very little was done in this direction before Hill's time was principally due to the circumstance that in those days but very little was done in the matter of general public instruction, and that the education of the masses had to be secured before the education of individual groups could be thought of. Even where there were institutions for the deaf, the teachers were very imperfectly prepared for their calling, consequently

not suitable for these institutions. The education of the deaf was, therefore, in the hands of persons who were but little acquainted with the subject, and to whom their duties were more of a burden than a pleasure. Under these circumstances it could not be expected that the education of the deaf was anything else but a simple imitation of the methods pursued by teachers in the public schools, and even this to a very imperfect degree. From the very start the education of the deaf was surrounded by a sort of mystification to hide the unsatisfactory results. It is true that Hill endeavored to follow a better course, but he met with a great deal of opposition and envy, and found among his immediate followers but few who rose to the level of his standard. Unfortunately, as the care for the deaf became more general, men were appointed leaders of the instruction of the deaf in the provinces of Prussia who had been raised in narrow-minded circles, far from the great stream of the world, and to these were intrusted the duty of preparing young men to be teachers—so sadly needed—in schools for the deaf.

Thus, even at the present day, deaf-mute education leaves a great deal to be desired, and causes a general longing for methods which are better suited to the actual conditions, and for an arrangement of the institutions which no longer bears the impress of times long since gone by. The fact that this in most cases remains a pious wish, and that a large number of our teachers of the deaf are convinced of the excellence of existing methods, must be traced to the circumstance that the men referred to above have, so to speak, created a school of their own, and that the authorities have but little knowledge of the actual needs of the schools for the deaf and do not exercise the proper degree of surveillance. The last mentioned circumstance was also the cause that, for about thirty years, it was solemnly proclaimed, *nobi et orbi,* "We make all the deaf speak and make them give up the sign-language!" or also, "The schools for the deaf give the same instruction as the public schools!" None of our teachers of the deaf at the present day conceals from himself the fact that we are still far from having reached these objects; with this difference, however, that at this day we still have to suffer from the unjustified boastings of a past age, when we are

called upon to make good the promises which were then made.

Thus the proposal to divide the pupils in institutions for the deaf has constantly gained more adherents. With properly educated, experienced, and skillful teachers, a limited number of pupils, and institutions which combine the boarding school and day-school, it is possible—if the circumstances are not too unfavorable—to get the brighter scholars to express their thoughts by spoken words by applying the German method, to gradually force the sign-language into the background, and to give them such an education as will meet the requirements of the modest circumstances in which most of our deaf live. A portion of the deaf, therefore, may approximately acquire that degree of education which in former years was considered as an end which might be reached by all. The less gifted pupils, however, will not be able to miss altogether the aid of mimics or signs and of a more extensive use of writing. As regards these pupils, we must be satisfied if the spoken word aids and supplements the communication of their thoughts, and prevents a complete isolation of the deaf from the outer world.

It is evident that varying capacity requires a separation of the pupils, and that this separation will prove a decided benefit. Such an arrangement has its undoubted advantages. If the capacity of the pupils in a class is nearly the same, it is not necessary to have constant regard to the less gifted, more rapid progress is made, and the subjects of instruction can be enlarged. This also stimulates the pupils, who frequently become weary of the dwelling on one and the same subject and the constant repetitions which are necessary if the class contains a number of less gifted pupils. On the other hand, these last mentioned pupils are saved from expecting too much of them, and the aim when not placed so high permits of a slower and more satisfactory advance in instruction. The danger of only half learning things and not understanding the subject is diminished. In admitting signs in instruction and in the extensive use of writing, the less gifted pupils find many an aid for understanding things and for communicating with others, which they would miss more or less if the pupils were not divided according to their capacity. Finally, these less gifted pupils will have less oc-

casion to feel their inferiority, than if they day after day are kept together with brighter pupils.

Nevertheless, the *disadvantages* of separating the pupils according to their capacity must not be overlooked. These disadvantages relate on the one hand, and principally, to the pupils, and on the other to the teacher. Even in families it may be observed that younger children are often brighter than the older ones when these were the same age. The reason for this is that the older children become the teachers of their younger brothers and sisters. And what teacher—no matter in what kind of school he is employed—cannot state from experience that the pupils, whenever they want an explanation of any subject, would rather apply for information to their fellow pupils than to the teacher! Children love best to learn from children. Is there any reason to suppose that this is not the case in schools for the deaf? By no manner of means. On the contrary, where pupils live together in a boarding school, they constantly have their teachers of their own age about them, whilst the real teacher is with them only a few hours every day. Here the influence of gifted pupils on less gifted ones surely must be felt, if anywhere. But how will it be, if the pupils are separated according to their capacity and are placed accordingly in separate institutions? In this case the stronger cannot exercise an influence as regards instruction and education on the weaker ones, who cannot aid each other, as the blind cannot lead the blind. But even if the separation only applies to the hours of instruction, the difference in the duties which they have to perform does not permit a strong mutual interest in each other. Speaking from personal experience, I would not like to rate this mutual influence too low, for—apart from the advantages which the less gifted pupils derive therefrom—the old adage *docendo discimus* also applies to the brighter pupils. Moreover, any one who does not undervalue the importance of good example, will in the separation of the pupils see the abandoning of a decided advantage.

These are the immediate disadvantages of a separation by capacity, as far as the pupils are concerned. As regards the *teachers* the old German saying remains true: "What is an owl for one, is a nightingale for another." For it is certain that the

eliminating of the less gifted pupils will greatly facilitate the labor of the teacher who has only bright pupils in his class, and make it more pleasant; whilst, on the other hand, the constant occupation with dull pupils will still further diminish the already very limited pleasure connected with the instruction of the deaf, and will tax the physical and mental strength of the teacher to the utmost.

After all that has been said, doubts may well be raised whether the advantages of a separation according to capacity outweigh the disadvantages. As the old adage has it, "What is one person's pleasure, is another one's grief." I am of opinion that the objections to a separation according to capacity may be overcome *if one rests satisfied with a separation into two classes, dividing the gifted pupils from the less gifted ones, and classes with the latter all those whose capacity is not sufficient for acquiring speech as the principal means of communication with others.* Thereby, the advantages which lie in the separation according to capacity would be brought out, without giving up the decided benefits of the mutual influence of the pupils on each other. The repeated sifting of the pupils so as to make three or even four divisions, works injury to the less gifted pupils (and these are generally the majority) in so far as they are separated from the best pupils; not to mention the circumstance that in that case it is rarely possible to make an exact separation. Wherever the pupils are divided into three or four classes according to their capacity, the teachers complain that they have pupils in their classes who are not suited to the majority of their pupils. A most decided warning should be sounded against disregarding the mechanical capacity for speech, and the more or less perfect formation of sounds, on the pretext of making a separation by capacity. The teacher in the middle and higher classes will then often have the sad experience that pupils who in the beginning spoke well, in the end turn out very poor scholars.

Let no one imagine that the separation by capacity in itself is a guarantee of satisfactory educational results! It is just as important to have scientifically and practically educated teachers, men who by independent thought are able to accomplish the difficult task of educating the deaf, men who do not think

they have reached the object of deaf-mute education by mechanical instruction in a parrot-like speech. It seems that there is at the present time a tendency in Germany to endeavor to reach a solution of this problem. Finally, the urgent demand for properly arranged and fully equipped institutions must not be disregarded. The greater importance of education as compared with instruction requires institutions which make it possible to give all necessary regard to the individual character of the pupil. Experience teaches *that in this respect large institutions do not answer the purpose.*

Care should also be taken that the pupils are afforded an opportunity to use the acquired speech in communicating with hearing persons, so as to gain greater fluency of speech. The day-school is therefore to be preferred to the boarding school pure and simple. The plan which is to be specially recommended is, therefore, to first teach every pupil order and intercourse with other pupils in boarding schools, which should not be too large, and then give them an opportunity to practically use the acquired speech in a day-school.

PREPARATIONS MADE FOR THE CARE OF PUPILS AT THE ST. LOUIS EXPOSITION.

ALVIN E. POPE, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, ST. LOUIS.

Extensive preparations have been made for the care and safety of the children attending the model schools for the deaf and for the blind at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition. A model kitchen will be installed by the Wrought Iron Range Company of St. Louis, costing in the neighborhood of $2,000. This kitchen will be an exhibit, and at the same time will be used for the preparation of food for the pupils, teachers, and supervisors participating in the living exhibit. Two small dining rooms adjoining the kitchen will be furnished by the cabinet shops of the various schools for the deaf. A large room above the kitchen originally intended for a dining room, will be partitioned and used for a boys' dormitory. The lower half of one section in the new dormitory originally constructed for the use of the students of Washington University will be used by the girls. Most of the rooms are built in suites containing two small bed rooms and a large parlor. A teacher may be located in one bed room, a supervisor in the other, and the children placed in the parlor which is between the two rooms. Each parlor will hold as many as eight beds.

These buildings are just being completed and are considered the finest dormitories ever constructed. They are located in a quiet corner of the Fair Grounds. Large play rooms in the basement will be at the service of the children, and suitable play grounds will be inclosed adjoining the dormitory. A special intramural car will take the children to and from the school rooms at stated hours. There will be a short distance which the pupils will have to walk from the car line to the school rooms, but six policemen will be at our disposal to assist the teachers and supervisors in bringing the pupils to and from the school.

A hospital with a corps of physicians is near the palace of education. The pupils will be examined each week by the medical department and several doctors will be stationed near the model schools. Every precaution is taken to prevent sickness and the pupils will be in no more danger than in their home schools.

The morning session will begin about 10 or 10:30, and close about 4, an intermission being allowed for luncheon. The school hours will be altered as occasion demands to suit the conditions of the weather and the needs of the pupils.

The pupils will be conducted about the grounds after school hours by supervisors and escorts. Free passes will be secured to all of the best entertainments, and ample time will be devoted to the study of exhibits.

The school rooms are constructed and furnished by exhibitors, and the free use of them is given to those taking part in this work. The A. H. Andrews Company of Chicago is putting in all the partitions and school furniture and equipment. The Miehle Printing Press Company is putting in a fine press on which will be printed colored pictures of the different classes in operation, and interesting material relative to the deaf and the blind at the fair. The schools furnishing this class will have an opportunity to print a World's Fair edition of their paper on the grounds. The cabinet shops which will be equipped by the J. A. Fay & Egan Company of Cincinnati, will turn out woodwork which may be sold as souvenirs. These souvenirs will pay for the raw material used in the various departments.

Owing to the great number of applications, which far exceed the capacity of the buildings, although they are much larger than those of any former Exposition, space is worth its weight in gold. Notwithstanding this fact, the deaf and the blind have received liberal allotments and ample provision has been made in every way for the safety and convenience of the pupils, and every possible means has been resorted to to reduce the cost of maintenance. Now the question is before the various schools of the United States to assist in carrying out this great work for the cause of the deaf and the blind. It is the duty of every school to contribute something to this enterprise, for such an opportunity may never again be presented to the schools of this country.

THE WISCONSIN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, DEAF SCHOOL SECTION MEETING.

ANNA E. SCHAFFER, MADISON, WISCONSIN.

The meeting of the Deaf Section of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association was held the afternoon of December 30, at the Milwaukee Day School for the Deaf, opening at 2:00 P. M.

The meeting was called to order by Miss Frances Wettstein, principal of the Milwaukee School for the Deaf. The comfortable gymnasium was filled with people who were interested in this special line of education. Not only were teachers of the deaf present, but city superintendents and principals who have deaf schools under their supervision, also a sprinkling of school officers.

The first number presented was a class in auricular training under Miss Elsie Steinke's management. Miss Steinke demonstrated her methods in a highly interesting manner. By way of preface to her work with the class she had brought with her from the State School at Delavan, Miss Steinke said:

"Every child that enters a school for the deaf should have his hearing tested, and, when it is proven that he has even the slightest vestige of hearing, he should be given a chance to have what little he has cultivated. Many of the semi-deaf cannot be educated in the public schools, and yet they have too much hearing to be wasted under the ordinary methods employed in schools for the deaf."

Miss Steinke put in a strong plea for intermediary schools, or special schools that shall care for the education of the semi-deaf. She believes that the sign language should not be used at all with this class of children, but that special methods, appealing constantly to the ear of the child, will develop and strengthen the auditory nerve, and train him to distinguish between mere noise and sounds that mean something. She would, at the same time, train the pupil in lip-reading, so that both eye and ear shall

become skilled, and the one shall aid the other in acquiring language.

The class which Miss Steinke brought from Delavan was organized last September, and was the first attempt at strictly auricular training. Their progress is shown by their readiness to take new words, which are given them through the ear only, and by their desire to come close to their teacher when they want to enjoy the pleasure of hearing, by their requests for songs, and by their conversation with one another. Miss Steinke illustrated her methods with the class present, and their ready understanding of directions given them was quite wonderful. Miss Steinke proved conclusively that there is a great field for work in the training of the semi-deaf.

The second number was a very interesting paper on "Dramatization as a Factor in Education," by Miss MaryMcCowen, supervisor of Day Schools for the Deaf in Chicago.

It is to be regretted that Miss McCowen's paper cannot be given in full. Among other things Miss McCowen said: "The instinctive babblings of the babe, which are, in reality, nature's vocal gymnastics preparatory to speech, become words spoken by the child at first only in direct imitation of what he hears, and, at first, scarcely comprehended. From day to day he repeats and appropriates more and more of the language he hears, until he finally reaches the stage wherein he uses spontaneous speech as an expression of his own thought, when, with all this complicated and long drawn out process, he is said to have "learned to talk."

By similar apt illustrations, Miss McCowen showed how the child was said to have "learned to walk," and then said: "The description of these two processes is typical of the child's growth in every direction, a gradual passing from the stage of instinctive activity, to that of conscious self-expression. By all educators, *play* is now recognized as the avenue through which the child becomes acquainted with himself and his environment. Since the impulse for self-expression is instinctive and imperative, and the child can only communicate what he really possesses, his free play must mirror pretty faithfully his understanding of the world about him."

Miss McCowen treated the various forms of "play" in the child's life in a very interesting manner, grouping them as follows:

Intuitive plays, or those in which the child is busy discovering himself and his powers; *representative plays,* or those in which the child alone, or with companions, reproduces the life by which he is surrounded, and, later, imaginary or ideal life; *racial plays,* or those in which the child reproduces the prehistoric experience of mankind; *traditional plays,* or those which reflect the social conditions of the eras from which they were handed down.

The McCowen School for deaf children lays great stress upon dramatizing and drawing as a means of expression. Miss McCowen believes that the continual use of acting or dramatizing in connection with nursery rhyme, nature myth, fairy story, and elementary literature enables the child to enjoy and benefit by this means of expression when he reaches the period where the historical story prepares the way for more definite and serious study in history. She believes that dramatization properly utilized, begets a thorough understanding of language, and a wide acquaintance with history, literature, geography, and science; that it cultivates grace and freedom of bodily expression and fosters an interest in books and reading, which, in itself, should commend it to every teachers of the deaf.

Miss McCowen's paper was followed by a beautiful Christmas play given by twenty-two children from the McCowen Deaf School in Chicago. The perfectly natural acting of these children, their graceful movements, especially in the minuet, danced in a appropriate costume, also the rapid free hand drawing of several boys dressed as Indians (who were to speak by means of pictures which they drew with perfect ease and accuracy, so that an Indian scene appeared upon the blackboard as if by magic,) all this illustrated Miss McCowen's paper most beautifully, and showed that she knew from actual experience whereof she spoke.

Following this very interesting number was an excellent paper by Mrs. Betty Spencer, on "How to Interest Pupils in Reading." Mrs. Spencer's paper was full of valuable suggestions to teachers of the deaf. Mrs. Spencer advocates "book making" as one means of interesting the deaf children in books.

Beginning with the very little child, the words and sentences learned should be written in books made for that purpose.

Accompanying the spoken and written form, should be the drawing of the object they represent. Later, the composition and journal work goes into these books, and the child never loses sight of his accumulation of language.

Mrs. Spencer put in a plea for the constant use of library books, as soon as the child knew the printed form. She believed that much was gained by the child from the mere handling of them, especially if the books contained pictures, which would suggest the story.

Later, Mrs. Spencer would have much reading of library books by pupils, and would have them write reviews of the same. Much memorizing of selections should be done, and pupils should become well acquainted with the portraits and names of authors. When the study of any one author has been completed, pupils should reproduce, illustrate, and make booklets. Mrs. Spencer would create further interest in literature by paraphrasing, reproducing short selections, literature games, and newspaper work. Mrs. Spencer made her paper thoroughly practical by showing the work of pupils along the above lines, illustrating in this way, each step given.

Another very interesting feature of the program was, "An Oral Reproduction," by Prof. C. E. Patzer.

Prof. Patzer took a class of fifth grade children, whom he had seen but once before, and told them the fable of "The Fox and the Grapes." His skillful questioning and the expert lip-reading of the class, returned the story to him in a very interesting manner. Those present were much surprised at the ready comprehension and intelligent replies of the class, all but two being totally deaf.

The dumb-bell exercise by Miss Stevenson's class from the Milwaukee School for the Deaf, was next given, and called forth much applause. Every movement was perfect.

The closing number was a short address by Supt. E. W. Walker of the State School for the Deaf at Delavan. Mr. Walker talked well, as he always does. His subject, "A year's Impressions of the Deaf Work," gave him opportunity to throw

out many helpful suggestions to those engaged in the training of the deaf. Mr. Walker believes, that just as the types of mind must be recognized in dealing with the education of the hearing child, so it must be in the work with the deaf. The philosophy employed must be based upon judgment and not upon sentiment. The training of the deaf must enable them to become self-reliant and able to do something in the world.

Of the two phases of oral work among the deaf, Mr. Walker would lay more stress upon proficiency in lip-reading than in speech.

The report of the nominating committee was next handed in, and Anna E. Schaffer was named chairman of the next meeting of the deaf section of the State Association.

After adjournment, a reception was tendered Miss McCowen and Miss Bingham, of Chicago. Refreshments were served and a good social time prevailed.

ON THE VALUE OF METHODICAL EXERCISES IN HEARING.[1]

Although this paper was read on the 27th of April, 1894, and published in the Clinical Weekly, it is now first brought before the general public in a separate edition. In his preliminary remarks Dr. Urbantschitsch states that the results obtained by methodical exercises in hearing astonished even him, plainly showing that the results obtained by him in the beginning in a few individual cases were not exceptions but typical cases.

Even exercises of five to ten minutes taken a few times a week showed excellent results. If they are repeated daily, the sense of hearing will of course be developed quicker and more fully. It is a great advantage that several persons should engage in these exercises so that the child gradually accustoms himself to different organs (male, female, and children's voices). A deaf person trained in this manner by only one person, will find it very difficult to understand other persons. The effects of sounds which in the beginning are not perceived at all, at first produce an undefined vague impression on the sense of hearing, which, however, by constant repetition will become clearer. It is interesting to notice the at times very marked influence of one ear on the other. It has repeatedly been observed by one that a sound which at the beginning of the exercise was not heard by the one ear was perceived by it when the sound previously was brought to bear on the other ear. I observed in some cases a different hearing capacity of both ears, so that one day it was difficult for the right ear to hear certain sounds, whilst on other days this was true of the left ear. In my opinion the influence, frequently repeated, of different musical sounds can—according to my experience—favor the development of the sense of hearing. The reciprocal influence of the sense of hearing of

[1]A paper read before the Society of Physicians in Vienna, by Dr. Victor Urbantschitsch.

spoken words and the sense of hearing musical sounds I found particularly developed in a deaf-mute girl; in the beginning I was unable to awaken any sensation of hearing by speaking several vowels into her ear; but when I let several sounds of the accordion strike her ear until these sounds were plainly heard, the girl was enabled to hear several vowels. Dr. Urbantschitch adds that in his hearing exercises he uses several musical instruments, e. g., the piano, and particularly the accordion; and that for testing the sense of hearing and for practicing certain sounds he has had an accordion constructed to which a scale of five and a half octaves can be attached either singly or in pairs, which produce a long drawn and, if required, very strong sound.

In using this accordion Dr. Urbantschitsch first determines the function of hearing as regards the entire scale, and exercises particularly the missing—at least in the beginning—or weak sensibility of the ear for certain sounds. After these preliminary remarks Dr. Urbantschitsch turns to the main question, viz., how long must these exercises be continued and what is their final result and practical value.

The necessity of special hearing exercises is due to the difficulty with which the hearing sensibility is aroused. As long as the ordinary outer influences of sounds do not lift the sense of hearing above a simple sensation, special acoustic means must be employed, until finally the sense of hearing has been developed to such a degree that the ordinary sounds are perceived. It is absolutely necessary that these exercises should be continued for a long time; as experience has shown that deaf-mutes who by these exercises have acquired a very noticeable increase of their hearing capacity, soon lapse into their old condition of deafness when these exercises are stopped. This will invariably be the case as long as there has not been such a strong development of the sense of hearing that the ordinary external effects of sound suffice to awaken the sense of hearing, or that the person in question is at least able to hear his or her own voice. In regard to this last mentioned faculty it is specially important that his own voice can be heard without the aid of a speaking tube. In exercising his own voice without a speaking tube, the circumstance is favorable to the deaf-mute that he hears

his own voice mainly by the air acting as conductor, and not—or at least only in rare cases—by the bones acting as conductors. When the hearing capacity of the two ears is unevenly developed, I make the deaf, when he is speaking, at times close up one ear with his finger, in order to specially exercise the ear whose hearing capacity is not so much developed. As regards the results of the hearing exercises, it is not possible—considering the comparatively small number of cases observed—to arrive at a definite conclusion.

In the first place there must be taken into account the capacity of hearing which the deaf person possesses when the exercises begin, as well as the faculty of development of the sense of hearing in each individual case. Absolute deafness is rare even among deaf-mutes, and even in cases where the sense of hearing seems to be completely lacking, a trace of hearing, at least in one ear, may be developed by patience and perseverance. Traces of hearing may be developed into a hearing of sounds, the hearing of sounds into the hearing of vowels, and this again into a hearing of words. When there is the capacity to hear words it may be developed to such a degree that in the course of the hearing exercises entire sentences, at first spoken into the ear, will be clearly heard at a gradually increased distance. I can state from my own personal observation that deaf-mutes who in the beginning seemed hopelessly deaf, had their sense of hearing gradually developed by continued methodical exercises in hearing. It should be stated, however, that the capability of development of the sense of hearing cannot be calculated beforehand in each case, and, even in cases where in the beginning both the left and right ear seem equally capable, will produce different results in the two ears. Thus the development of the sense of hearing is often more rapid in one ear than in the other, or is at times confined to only one ear. It also happens sometimes that only after the sense of hearing of one ear has improved considerably, will the other ear show a gradual development.

The mental condition of deaf-mutes may also exercise a very considerable influence on the development of the sense of hearing. The mental capacities of deaf-mutes are frequently

entirely normal, and they even at times show unusual strength. In other cases there is in addition to deaf-muteness a mental weakness, a more or less pronounced idiocy. It must also be considered that many a deaf-mute child, especially if the parents are poor, has received a very defective or no education at all before it is entrusted to the care of a teacher of the deaf. It is evident that in such cases acoustic instruction can commence only after the child has been raised to a higher mental level. The way the deaf take to these hearing exercises is of considerable importance. In most cases the hitherto unknown sensation acts in an inspiring way, and the deaf-mutes enter eagerly into the spirit of the exercises. Later there is apt to be a certain disillusion, especially when the sense of hearing develops but very slowly, which may, if the teacher does not perseveringly pursue the course he has began, easily induce the deaf-mute to give up these exercises. In order to keep the interest awake, it is very important to select for these exercises also words which have a definite meaning, and to continue without flagging in this path, even if at times some rigorous measures should become necessary.

As regards the practical value of the hearing exercises, their influence on the pronunciation of deaf-mutes, as well as certain means of facilitating the intercourse with others, dependent on the degree of hearing, must be taken into consideration. It is well known that hearing exercises a considerable influence on the manner of pronunciation, which will show itself most distinctly in a person who has been deaf from earliest childhood. The pronunciation of such a person generally appears harsh, without any degree of modulation, and is often hard to understand. Even a child which can hear vowels has a much softer pronunciation, so that this alone permits us to draw the conclusion that a faculty of hearing exists. A very instructive instance was furnished by a boy in the Institution for the Deaf of Lower Austria at Döbling, who was completely deaf and talked with a very disagreeable high voice; and all efforts to break him of this appeared futile. When this boy, by means of hearing exercises during one week, learned to distinguish the different vowels, his voice at the same time become perfectly natural, and has remained so ever since.

The results of hearing exercises in the Döbling Institution were as follows: in October, 1893, none of the pupils could hear an entire sentence; 6 could hear words; 22 could hear vowels; whilst 32 were either entirely deaf or had only slight traces of hearing. A year later 12 could hear sentences, 16 could hear words; 21 could hear vowels; whilst 11 possessed only traces of hearing. These results must be valued all the more, as only a very short time could be devoted to each pupil.

In conclusion Dr. Urbantschitsch gives some individual instances of which we cite a few: Bertha Fleischhacker, 9 years old, totally deaf from her birth. For about one year she went through hearing exercises, 10 minutes each, four times a week. She can now hear words and short sentences. Theresia Hagleitner: 15 years old, totally deaf from her birth. She had for about a year 10 minutes daily hearing exercises. She can now hear words and sentences, her own voice, and even short conversations.

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KATE F. HOBART, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

A three years' course in paper construction follows the kindergarten training.

There are forty models in the first year's course. The articles are constructed from seven inch squares of gray paper. The models have been planned and worked out with great care. They are graded principally according to the difficulties of the foldings. The first half are made simply by folding; the last half by folding and fastening with worsted. Scissors are not introduced into this year's work. A few of the models are based upon the circle. Accuracy is *the* important point in the children's work and great pains have been taken that no model shall be too difficult for a child of this grade to make accurately. The children take great pleasure in the results of their work, picture frames, wall pockets, pin trays, button boxes, napkin rings, etc.

The same material, seven inch squares and seven inch circles, is used in the second year's course. There are thirty-three models in it. The first few models introduce the new exercise of cutting in addition to that of folding, but require no fastening. The remainder are constructed with laps and are fastened by means of paste. Here too the point of accuracy is made of the highest importance. The models are carefully graded and still held within the grasp of the pupil.

New material is introduced in the third year's course—colored four inch squares, colored four inch circles, and eight inch light weight, gray cardboard mounts. Also pencil and rule are used for the first time. A pattern is drawn to measurement on the white side of the colored square or circle. In the earlier courses, the guide for cutting was a fold, now it is a line. From the pieces resulting from the cutting, the design planned is first

laid, then pasted on the gray mount. There are thirty models or designs in this course. Knowledge of the rule and accuracy in measurement are gained. Repetitions of the same measurement never become irksome since the result each time is a new drawing and a new design.

The two courses in "Cardboard Construction," published by Mr. J. H. Tryborn, are used in the next two years, and his yet unpublished course in the same line, in the third year.

The above work in paper and in cardboard construction is taught both to boys and girls.

The boys on entering the grammar school, take up sloyd and it is elective with the girls. After the three years' course (taught in the Boston schools) is completed, the pupils in their last years in school are permitted to construct one or two difficult and elaborate models.

Thus we have a complete course in manual training for all the grades from the kindergarten through the graduating grade.

GEOGRAPHY LESSONS IN THE HORACE MANN SCHOOL, BOSTON.

Elementary Work.

ELSA L. HOBART, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

The lessons preparatory to geography are begun in the second grade. The class has had lessons upon plants and animals, upon points of the compass, winds, rain, snow, etc., in the first grade. At the opening of school the second grade is taken out upon a series of weekly excursions and becomes familiar with the natural features of the vicinity. They are taught hill, ocean, spring and brook, pond, field and river, making trips up Corey Hill, to City Point, to the Arboretum, to Jamaica pond, to Franklin Park, and across Harvard bridge. These out-of-door lessons are made the basis of in-door lessons for the next two months. Then follow lessons upon cold countries and warm countries, and upon different vegetable and animal products as cotton, wool, sugar, grains, etc.

The following year, while in the third grade, another series of excursions is taken early in the fall. These are to teach soil-making, the work of streams, the work of the waves, and the work of the glaciers. They are trips to the great ledge of crumbling rock at Medford, to a connected chain of spring, brook, pond and brook, at Brighton, two trips to Crescent beach, one at low tide and the other at high tide, and a climb to the top of Parker Hill. Later in the year, this grade study about mountains, valleys, plains, plateaus, and lakes. Pictures are used and their knowledge of natural forms in the vicinity helps the pupils to imagine these new features. After a general summary of land forms and water forms, the class enjoys a very simple presentation of the story of the formation of the earth and learns incidentally its shape, its great size, and its motion.

Thus the pupils enter the grammar department with a knowledge of the simple natural features of the earth's surface. They know nothing whatever of any representation of the earth upon globes or maps, and have had no study of the different countries.

The Grammar School Work.

MARY H. THOMPSON, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

Map study is begun in the fourth grade of the grammar school, from a model of Boston, which shows the forms of land and water that the pupils visited in the primary school. A free-hand map is drawn of the model and placed in an erect position beside a printed map of Boston. They are studied together, the children finding the representations of hill, river, ocean, etc., on both. Then a map of Massachusetts, where Boston is represented by a black dot and the Charles river by a black line, is examined.

After this each new form of land or water is found on the map as soon as it is described.

The idea of a field, gained in the primary school, is broadened to one of a plain by means of a large colored picture, and plains are found on the maps of different countries.

The same course is pursued in developing the idea of a mountain from that of a hill, in fact with all inaccessible forms of land and water.

Trips are taken to the wharves, railroad stations, etc., to study the occupations of the people of Boston. The children discuss the reasons why certain occupations are profitable here. Other cities similarly placed are found on the map and the different kinds of business transacted by their inhabitants suggested by the pupils.

A little later in the course, relief maps of different countries are colored by the children to show the differences in altitude, the course of the rivers, and location of the coast waters. Other maps showing the productions, occupations, and cities are made by the pupils.

The apparent daily and yearly motions of the sun are observed, the change in the length of day and night and the prevailing winds are also noted. The real motions of the earth are shown by means of a globe and a candle. The relations of the real motions of the earth and the apparent motions of the sun are explained.

The effect of the prevailing winds on our climate are considered and their effect on the climate of Europe and Asia discussed.

Compositions on geographical topics are written by all the older pupils and the work with books usually done in the upper classes in other schools is accomplished in this.

In the graduating class the changes being wrought by natural forces in the surrounding country are studied on trips, the most interesting being to Blue Hill.

JAMES HOWARD.

(By courtesy of The Messenger.)

JAMES HOWARD.[1]

We deeply regret to have to announce the death of Mr. James Howard, Head Master of the Yorkshire Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, which sad event occurred, after a long and painful illness, borne with great patience and fortitude, at his residence in the Institution on the 18th of September last. In the demise of Mr. Howard the teaching profession loses one of its greatest ornaments, and the Deaf one of their best friends. Mr. Howard was born at York in the year 1844, and was one of the first of that considerable body of teachers of the Deaf who hail from the county of broad acres. His father was a tradesman of no mean ability; his mother came of a stock of yeomen farmers who had long been settled in the Parish of Stitenham, near York, said to have been the birthplace of the poet Gower. Mr. Howard was educated along with his brother, Mr. Edward Howard, H. M. I., partly at the Practicing School attached to the York Diocesan Training College for Schoolmasters, and partly at the Minster Choir School, he having been one of the boy choristers in the venerable cathedral. He left school, however, at an early age, and for a short time was connected with one of the newspaper offices in York; but this work not being congenial to his nature and tastes, he gladly embraced the opportunity which was offered him of entering the Birmingham Institution for the Deaf and Dumb as an apprentice teacher. This Institution was at that time under the superintendence of Mr. Arthur Hopper, B. A., and here Mr. Howard remained for some five years, receiving a thorough and valuable training in the art of teaching the Deaf on the Sign and Manual System, at that time almost exclusively in vogue in the United Kingdom. In 1866 Mr. Howard transferred his services to the Edinburgh Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, becoming head assistant to the late Mr. Wm. Hutchison, another teacher of Mr. Hopper's training, whose

[1]From The Messenger (Belfast, Ireland).

merits have never been fully recognized. Mr. Howard remained in Edinburgh till the Xmas of 1873, doing most valuable work, enlarging his experience, and making many friends. Here also he had the happiness of making the acquaintance of the future Mrs. Howard.

Promotion then as now was slow, and despairing of attaining that goal of all ambitious young teachers, the headship of an Institution, Mr. Howard was induced by the Committee of the Glasgow Mission to the Adult Deaf and Dumb, to place his services at their disposal. Here, as elsewhere, Mr. Howard was popular, and made troops of friends; but his experience of mission work was destined to be of short duration. In the spring of 1874, Mr. Baker, the famous head of the Yorkshire Institution, died, and from amongst the many capable candidates who applied for the vacant post, Mr. Howard was selected as the fittest, and received the appointment, his prospective wife being at the same time appointed matron. Mr. Howard was shortly afterwards married in Manchester Cathedral by Canon Marsden, and after a brief honeymoon the newly-wedded pair took up residence at Doncaster at the end of the summer vacation. For the space of 29 years they have managed with conspicuous success the destinies of the Institution thus committed to their charge, and those who knew Mr. Howard best were hoping that he would have been spared for many years to come, but Providence has arranged otherwise, and it is not for mankind to rebel. In the plenitude of his powers and usefulness he is cut off, and we can only bewail his loss, and try to profit by his example. Mr. Howard, as we have indicated, received his early training as a teacher on the Sign and Manual System exclusively, and he was a facile and most expressive sign-maker. The Oral method in his early days was practically unknown in the British Isles, but about the time of his appointment to Doncaster the moving of the waters had begun, and very soon after going into residence at Doncaster he received an impulse in the direction of oralism, which converted him to its tenets, and remained with him throughout the remainder of his life. In 1876, or thereabouts, the Abbe Balestra, an Italian teacher of the Deaf, and an enthusiastic oralist, paid a visit to this country. Amongst other

places that he visited was the Institution at Doncaster, and his enthusiasm so worked on Mr. Howard's ardent nature that he took up the oral method with all the vigour of which he was capable. The result was that the method of teaching at Doncaster was entirely changed, and Mr. Howard became one of the leading exponents of this method of instructing the Deaf. His efforts to teach by and through speech met with a large measure of success, and the Yorkshire Institution took a foremost position as one of the most progressive Institutions of the day.

Mr. Howard did not combine his energies, however, solely to the superintendence of his own Institution, but took an active interest in all matters pertaining to the welfare of his profession. He was an apt and fluent speaker, and at the many Conferences which led up to the Education Act (Blind and Deaf Children) of 1893, his voice was often heard with effect. He was the chosen mouthpiece of the profession on the great deputation which waited on Mr. Acland at the Education Office to press the claims of the Deaf for State-aided education, and his speech on that occasion was worthy of the man and the occasion. The Blind and Deaf Children Act was shortly after introduced into the House of Commons and became law.

As a trainer of teachers Mr. Howard also made his mark. He was an active promoter and member of the College of Teachers of the Deaf and Dumb, and had a seat on the examining body for many years. As a result of his experience he prepared a course of lectures, which he was in the habit of giving to the junior members of his staff, many of whom have since put his wise advice into practical effect with advantage both to themselves and to their pupils. The writer can testify from personal experience that the Doncaster trained teacher both in theory and practice was second to none, and equalled by few.

In private life Mr. Howard was a staunch friend, and a most entertaining companion. He had read widely on a large variety of topics, but the bent of his mind was probably more artistic than scientific. As a raconteur he was unrivalled among his contemporaries, and the funny way in which he would retail a choice bit from his large collection of Yorkshire folk lore and dry Scotch

humorous tales, effectually banished melancholy from the hearts of those who were privileged to listen to him. He was very fond of music, both vocal and instrumental, and could play almost any instrument to which his fancy for the moment led him. One of his greatest delights was to assemble his family and his teachers in his wife's drawing-room and practise music with his Institution orchestra, as he termed it. Many a pleasant winter evening was thus spent. Drawing and painting also claimed a good deal of his attention in his younger days, and he was a good judge of art. As an instance of his facility with the pencil may be mentioned the fact that as a young teacher he sat for and obtained his "D" with scarcely any special preparation, securing "Excellent" in all the required subjects at one examination.

In politics he was a Conservative, and in religion a member of the Church of England. He was by no means a formalist, and was too outspoken at times for his own peace of mind, boldy expressing unpopular opinions when it would have been easier perhaps for himself to have kept silence; but his was always a warm and affectionate heart, and the better he was known the more was he appreciated. He was a loyal husband and an affectionate father. He bore his long and trying illness with fortitude and patience, and met his death, as a Christian should, with resignation and hope.

We cannot close this imperfect sketch without tendering our heartfelt sympathy to his bereaved widow and children.

W. H. A.

BLUNDERS REGARDING THE DEAF IN LITERATURE.

EDWIN STANLEY THOMPSON, MT. AIRY, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

How difficult it is for artists and authors to grasp the details of things with which they are not absolutely familiar. Many a painting of an evening scene has been marred by the horns of the new moon pointing towards, instead of away from, the sun. Many a ship has sailed on canvas with her starboard and port lights on the wrong sides. Rider Haggard has a full moon follow a new moon after an interval much shorter than that customary in nature, and even the immortal Shakespeare gives a sea coast to Bohemia.

The deaf and dumb and their methods of communication do not figure largely in fiction, but when they do there is pretty sure to be a display of ignorance.

In a detective story like Anna Katherine Green's "The Circular Study," we may grant that the master made known his wants to his deaf servant through the medium of a code of colored lights, for upon this depends much of the working out of the plot. But when the hero, a hearing man, writes, "Don't forget to practise Braille," as his parting advice to the deaf heroine, one is reminded of the oft repeated question of visitors to our class rooms, "Do you use raised letters?" This blot occurs in a very pretty tale by an anonymous writer, entitled "In a Silent World: The Love Story of a Deaf-Mute." And it is not a slip of the pen, for it is referred to twice later on: "I spent much time in my attic, practising type-raising with my little Braille frame, making extracts from my favorite authors," and "I progress steadily with my Braille work."

But the queerest jumble occurs in W. H. H. Murray's "The Doom of the Mamelons." One of the leading characters in the story is an old Indian who has been deprived of his tongue and

is consequently dumb. "Crippled beyond hope of fighting more, he left his tribe, and, toiling through the woods, came to the chief in the great house and said, in the quick language of silent signs: '* * * *.'" "The old tongueless chief.....rose up, and with dilating nostrils tested the air, and his throat rattled. Then put ear to earth, as man to wall, listening to the voices running through the frame-work of the world, cast cones upon the dying brands, and, standing in the light made by the gummy rolls, said to the trapper in dumb show."

So far, so good, but, "To which the trapper answering signed: '* * * *.'" Why in the name of common sense should it be necessary to use signs in addressing a man with hearing acute enough to hear "the voices running through the frame-work of the world," even though he be dumb from the loss of his tongue?

But this is not all. Mr. Murray had doubtless heard that the eye could be made to do the duty of the ear, so "the old chief," he of the acute hearing, "mutely stood, watching, with gloomy eyes, the sad sight. He read the motion of her lips, and in his tongueless throat there grew a moan."

Doubtless the authors of the books quoted from above thought that they had introduced details that would add much to their apparent familiarity with the subject of deafness, and many of those who read receive their statements as true because they are printed in a book. Where ignorance is bliss, 't is folly to be wise.

NECROLOGY FOR 1903, OF PERSONS CONNECTED WITH THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.

Allen, Jessie B.; formerly principal of the Ashland, Wisconsin, Day-School; at different times teacher in the Delavan, Eau Clare, and Ashland schools; died in February.

Berglind, Jeannette; distinguished Swedish teacher of the deaf; died September 14, aged 87.

Bikkers, I. C.; Director of the Rotterdam (Netherlands) Institution; died March 31, aged 69.

Brock, Marcus I.; a valued teacher in the Illinois Institution from 1858 to 1869, and from 1875 to 1893; during the interval of these periods, principal of the Arkansas Institution and a teacher in the Pennsylvania Institution; died February 14, aged 68.

Erhardt, Georg Friedrich; Director of the St. Gall (Switzerland) Institution; died June 26.

Giraud, Désiré; Director of the National Institution in Paris since 1898; died in April.

Gordon, Joseph Claybaugh; Superintendent of the Illinois Institution since 1897; special teacher of articulation in the Indiana Institution from 1869 to 1873; Professor of Mathematics and Chemistry, and later in charge of the Department of Articulation and the Normal Department in Gallaudet College, for twenty-four years; a charter member and director of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf; one of the organizers and President of the Department of Special Education, N. E. A.; author of many important contributions on the education of the Deaf; died April 12, aged 61.

Gurley, C. A.; Steward of the Tennessee School for thirteen years; died November 28.

Hoyt, R. D.; a retired teacher of the Iowa School, died in July.

Howard, James; Headmaster for many years of the Yorkshire Institution, Doncaster, England; died September 18.

Jackson, Sallie; Matron of the Tennessee School for twenty-three years; died November 29.

Jungk, Dr. O.; Director of the Coburg (Germany) Institution for upwards of fifty years; died October 10.

Lacharrière, Dr. Ladreit de; Physician at the National Institution for the Deaf at Paris for thirty years; died August 5.

Lind, Harold Christian; a well known Danish teacher of the Deaf; died September 16.

Linnartz, Wilhelm; Director of the Aix-la-Chapelle (Germany) Institution; died August 22.

Mann, Mary A.; a graduate of the American School at Hartford for the Deaf and a teacher there for forty-five years; died September 6.

Park, Plumb M.; a valued teacher in the Ohio Institution from 1838 to 1840, and from 1844 to 1883; deaf from infancy; died February 21.

Reynard, Dr. Albert; for many years inspector of the National Institution for the Deaf at Paris, in which capacity he conducted the annual examinations; died September 28.

Seyffarth, Ludwig Wilhelm; of Liegnitz, Germany; a prominent educational writer and biographer of Pestalozzi; died October 26.

Simpson, James; a graduate of the Michigan School and of the New York Institution; teacher in the Iowa School for three years; Superintendent of the South Dakota School from 1881 to a short time prior to his death; died November 16.

Smith, Marie L.; a teacher in the Utah School; formerly of the Rhode Island School; died May 3.

Turner, Rev. Job; a graduate of the Virginia School and a teacher there for thirty-five years; since 1880 missionary to the Deaf of the Southern States; died May 19, aged 83.

CONTEMPORARY THOUGHT.

SHOULD PICTORIAL REPRESENTATIONS OF THE ORGANS OF SPEECH BE USED?

So far the deictic method, i. e., the imitation of the various positions of the organs of speech of the teacher, has been generally employed in teaching deaf pupils to articulate, in connection with observations made by the pupil himself before the looking glass, the sensations of his muscles, and what he notices in his fellow pupils. The mouth of the teacher will invariably be the first, the best, and the most natural object lesson. But can the mouth of every teacher be considered as a true model? The beard of the teacher, even if only covering the edge of the lips, will prove a hindrance. Lips which are a little too thick or too thin are not calculated to produce perfect representations of sounds. Defective teeth likewise interfere very seriously with the productions of representations of sounds. It may be said that such anomalies are exceptional; but they should, nevertheless, be taken into account; for an ideal mouth, meeting all the requirements, is but rarely found. It is true that every teacher of articulation endeavors to let the full daylight fall on his mouth; but the clearness suffers to some extent even if a slight side movement takes place. The pupils who sit near the teacher will see his mouth even if the light is not very favorable; but those who sit farther will not be able to clearly observe the positions of the mouth. If pictorial representations are employed, this difficulty is obviated, as the mouth, whether given as a front or side-view, will show its position steadily and clearly. If for no other reason, such pictures are usefully employed because they do not strain the sight of the pupils. As a general rule instruction in articulation will have to be individual instruction, as the exact position of the organs of speech can be acquired only under the most conscientious control of the teacher. Therefore,

he can at best only instruct one pupil at a time, whilst if he uses pictures, he can easily instruct two or more at the same time. These pictures should of course show the mouth in supernatural size, just as in common schools reading is first taught by very large letters. Such pictures must also clearly show the positions of the inner organs of speech, which it will in most cases be very difficult for the teacher to show by his own mouth. It may, therefore, be taken as granted that a judicious use of such pictorial representations will, in connection with the teacher's own mouth, prove a decided advantage in instruction in articulation. At the present time there are only two such series of pictures at the disposal of the German teachers of the deaf, viz., those prepared by Lemensiech and by Rausch. The latter especially meet all requirements in a truly admirable manner, and can be conscientiously recommended. Both are published by Schiewek, Nordhausen, Germany.—Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland.

HEREDITARY DEAFNESS.

Although Prof. Fay's work, "Marriages of the Deaf in America," has thrown a great deal of light on this matter, the question has not been sufficiently answered whether consanguinity of the parents, as such, can be considered a cause of deafness; as of 4,471 marriages of the deaf, consanguinity could be shown only in 31 cases. It is, therefore, exceedingly desirable to gather statistical data bearing on this question from as many sources as possible. As a small contribution towards this object, the following data from the Emden, Germany, institution are presented: The 33 pupils of this institution belong to 28 families. In 7 of these families the parents are blood relations; and in 5 of these families it is shown conclusively that the members are suffering from defective hearing, viz., 1 family: the father's sister is deaf; 1 deaf child. 1 family: the father's sister is deaf; 3 deaf children. 1 family: the cousin of the mother is deaf; 2 deaf children. 2 families: the cousin of the mother is deaf; 1 deaf child in each family. On the other hand, the following

pupils belong to families where the parents are not blood relations: 1 family: 4 deaf children. 2 families: 2 deaf children; each. 2 families: 3 deaf children each. 4 families: 2 deaf children each. It will thus be seen that, in order to arrive at some reliable conclusions, it will be necessary to gather the most extensive and exact statistical data from all points.—O. Danger in Die Kinderfehler.

CAUTION IN LIP-READING.

The third category of speechless children are the deaf-mutes; they cannot speak because they do not hear. Whenever a child is not mentally weak, and cannot hear the human voice, its sense of hearing is too feeble to acquire speech. The child certainly does not speak, for the simple reason that it does not hear sounds. Such a child cannot be taught by the usual means, i. e., by the ear, but it must be taught in another manner. Such a child can hear a good many sounds, higher and deeper than those produced by the human voice, such as the song of birds, the sounds of a flute, the ringing of bells, thunder, the music of an organ, etc. If we could speak to a child in such a high or deep octave, it would be able to hear and learn to speak. Such children must be taught not by the ear but by the eye. Consequently, instruction of the deaf is based on lip-reading. The method in itself is very simple, but requires great patience. Older children will retain the meaning of the motions of the lips by repeating them from twenty to thirty times; while smaller children will require much more frequent repetitions. After some time, possibly half a year or a whole year, the child imitates its mother and begins to move its lips. Then, and only then, a beginning must be made to teach the child spoken language, according to a manual prepared for the purpose. After a year or two the mother will see the fruits of her labor. The child will not only speak sentences which it has been taught, but it will also learn new sentences from the lips of those about it. Such a result is a source of much joy, but it may also become a source of trouble, for the following reason: Nothing

can be kept secret from a child which is an expert lip-reader. It sees what people speak about, even if they are at some distance; it can even through the window see what people say who are passing on the street; and as the deaf child is inquisitive, like all children, he endeavors to extend his stock of knowledge by closely watching the mouth of every person whom he sees speak. Nothing can be kept from a child which thoroughly knows how to read from the lips. Caution in speaking before deaf children should, therefore, be exercised, if impressions which might interfere with their mental and moral development are to be kept from them.—The Director of the St. Petersburg Institution in Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland.

LEONARDO DE VINCI'S "LAST SUPPER" A CLASSICAL STUDY OF MIMICS AND GESTURES.

This famous painting by one of the greatest of the old Italian masters ornaments one wall of the refectory in the Convent of Santa Maria della Grazie, in Milan. But through innumerable reproductions it has become one of the best known pictures in the world; and there is hardly a person in any civilized country who has not a pretty correct idea of the same. For teachers of the deaf this picture has a special significance, because the artist has given the participants in the last supper in such a manner as to enable a person to read—without a spoken word—what each one of the disciples thinks or says to his neighbor; even the positions of the hands and fingers are truly eloquent; and the character of each of the disciples—as known to us from other portions of the Bible—can be clearly read. The picture deserves to be studied thoroughly from this point of view; and teachers of the deaf, especially, will derive true and lasting benefit from such a study, and may properly use it in the instruction of their pupils, as a masterly model of face-reading.—Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland.

THE POSITION OF THE DEAF IN HUMAN SOCIETY.

In the ante-Christian era but very little was done for bettering the condition of the deaf; and what little was done was simply a consequence of the egotism of human society. The deaf were considered as little better than animals, as persons who owing to their defect and to the consequent development of the mere physical side of their nature, might prove dangerous to human society; and the policy was to get rid of them either by banishing or killing them. Even men of advanced ideas doubted whether the deaf could ever be educated. Christ, the divine healer, became a model for all who desired that the condition of the deaf should be improved. But in spite of this, Christian charity did not develop any activity in this particular sphere for many centuries. And even to this day it cannot be denied that the deaf still suffer from the curse which for eighteen centuries pursued them as defective beings, and as unfit for education. Although, in the light of the experience of the last hundred years, the capacity of the deaf for education can no longer be doubted, we should not make a mistake in the other direction by considering the capacities of the deaf as fully equal to those of persons possessed of all their senses. The idea that the deaf by nature are equipped with the same powers and talents as hearing persons has been thoughtlessly uttered and repeated again and again; so that in many circles it has almost become an axiom. This is a mistake; for a child deaf from birth has from the very beginning been inferior to a hearing child of the same age; his thinking capacity develops slower, and his thoughts do not acquire the clearness of those of a hearing person. Even later when the deaf person, after overcoming innumerable difficulties, has acquired speech, his mental development is slower, not only because the means of communication by the eye is not as reliable as that by the ear, but because his capacities and powers must, so to speak, travel the road of development twice. It cannot be denied that even in our days, at least in Germany, the great mass of the public takes very little interest in the efforts for improving the condition of the deaf. There appear to be two principal reasons for this much to be regretted fact, viz., the antipathy which

most people entertain against conversation by signs and gestures, and the false interpretation of the character af the deaf. It is true that eloquent speakers employ signs and gestures, and that they are not infrequently used in conversation between hearing persons, to emphasize an idea. The speech of the deaf has an essentially different character. The movements of his hands intend to express what he knows and desires to communicate; but the oratorical effect of his communication he endeavors to express by manifold changes of his features; some people would simply say, "He makes faces." Affirmation and denial, doubt and trustworthiness, encouragement and discouragement, are read from his features which are frequently distorted in a very inæsthetic manner, and make a caricature of his face. It would be well, indeed, from more points of view than one, if the deaf who have acquired speech would entirely discard signs or gestures. But unfortunately this will remain a longed for but never fulfilled ideal, as long as there are deaf people in this world. Among themselves, at any rate, they will invariably use this easy means of communication. But it should be the aim of every educated deaf person to abandon the use of signs as far as possible.

As regards the false interpretation of the character of the deaf, the following should be said: A person who even through the mask of the frequently inæsthetic, and to many people revolting, signs, has learned to know the true character of the deaf, will—if he is a person of education—not hesitate in the least to become their friend. But he who is unable to lift the mask of signs, who judges of the inner being of the deaf merely from outward appearances—and unfortunately these people are in the majority—will consider the deaf possessed of innumerable disagreeable and bad qualities. Such people feel convinced that, as a general rule, the deaf are stubborn, suspicious, malicious, revengeful, and discontented. It would be sad indeed if the mere lack of one sense were to produce such a character. It is certain that even among the deaf there are some who show the above mentioned defects of character. But the reason for this must be sought not in their natural defect, but in their neglected education in the parental home.

It is certain that there are inherent in the deaf certain weaknesses which, if not counteracted in time by a proper education, may turn into faults of character and even vices. All the more reason that the utmost effort should be made to educate the deaf. As beings suffering from a physical and therefore also from a mental defect, they should be objects of the greatest and tenderest care at all periods of their lives. Such constant care is the ideal which true Christian charity aims at. It seeks out the weak child, even before it is of school age, whenever the home does not offer the basis of a good education; it liberally spends all the means at its disposal to instruct and educate the deaf children of school age for as long a period as possible; it aids the grown up deaf in the battle of life; it cares for the sick and aged till the hour of death.

As far as Germany is concerned, the present age appears to act as if the deaf were not worthy of such aid, as indicated above. The enthusiasm shown for this matter in government circles thirty or forty years ago has cooled off very perceptibly. Could this coolness of charitable zeal be ascribed to the idea, alleged to have been gained by experience, that the deaf, even after having enjoyed the benefits of instruction and education, still remain deaf? If so, it becomes an imperative necessity to employ more effective means for making the deaf useful members of human society. The deaf will never be able to exercise the full powers of a hearing person, but by sufficient care and education he can in all cases be made a useful member of human society.—Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland.

SOME OF THE WEAK POINTS IN THE CHARACTER OF THE DEAF.

These weak points are briefly mentioned in order that the attention of educators of the deaf may be directed to them, with the view to checking, correcting, or eradicating them.

Great inquisitiveness: This is a natural consequence of the lack of hearing. Whilst the hearing child observes and judges of every thing new, unknown, or anything the knowledge of

which is deemed desirable, even from a distance, the deaf child to whom the eye does not furnish the necessary information, pushes its way to the source of the sound. It wants to see with its own eyes, and thereby its action becomes obtrusive and annoying. Parents can very well prevent this by leading the child to the source of knowledge, by furnishing an immediate means of acquiring all that is necessary for children to know, and by teaching the child even at an early age to properly subject its own will to circumstances and to the will of other persons. Inquisitiveness easily degenerates into boldness, which is erroneously termed impudence by many persons. The child desires everything for himself; every place he considers as his own domain; everything which others possess belongs to him too. In judging of persons he makes no difference between high and low. This is perfectly natural. Every deaf child, until he has acquired language, is a born nihilist. He believes nothing, knows but little, and esteems no one higher than himself. Nothing but constant intercourse with thoroughly educated persons is able to correct this weakness. Another consequence of the boldness above referred to, is the desire of the child to appropriate to himself everything he sees. This covetousness—for we can hardly call it a thieving propensity—arises from the erroneous view which the child entertains of the value of its own person. Hand in hand with this goes a certain disregard of the feelings of others. Nothing but strict and consistent measures will correct this evil. As regards the grown up deaf, it should be stated that what makes him frequently disagreeable to his surroundings, is his spirit of discontent. This condition might be understood and even defended, if the deaf were discontented on account of the physical defect. But this is not the case. He finds fault not with his fate but with his fellow men. In fact we find very few deaf who complain of their defect. Most of them do not know what the loss of the sense of hearing means, because they never possessed it. Among the great mass of the deaf the discontent does not show itself in the desire and longing for inner peace and happiness, for knowledge, virtue, and perfection; but it shows itself most decidedly in this that the deaf compares his condition with that of others, overvalues himself and

his accomplishments, undervalues those of others, demands what he does not deserve, as something that is due to him by right, and in the social race wants differences of reward to be made only in his favor. While at school the deaf child is praised for every intelligently uttered word; endeavors are made to compensate him in every possible way for his great loss; even his clothing is often better than that of his hearing brothers and sisters; and much more regard is taken for his feelings in every respect than for those of hearing children. But when the deaf person enters practical life, when he is called upon to earn his living, all this is changed. In competition with higher intelligence, the deaf person will soon find out his inferiority; the fight for daily bread requires *whole* men possessed of all their powers. In spite of this the deaf person expects that the same regard shall be taken for him as when he was at school; he looks for the same wages as his fellow workmen, even if in the quality of his work he cannot compete with them. Thus there arises discontent with every employer, with every workshop, with every place of work; and the consequence is an everlasting change of places, and change of occupation. It will undoubtedly be difficult to indicate precisely in what manner and by what means this discontent, which certainly exists in a great many cases, can be cured; much will depend on the individual circumstances; but it is a matter which deserves the careful attention and consideration of all well-wishers of the deaf.—Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland.

SOME WISHES AS REGARDS THE SCIENTIFIC EDUCATION OF TEACHERS OF THE DEAF.

We hear on all sides urgent requests for a higher scientific education of our (German) public school teachers, at least as far as the higher grades are concerned. Veterinary surgeons, dentists, druggists are required to produce certificates of graduation from some university or technical college. Surely, the calling of a teacher is equally important and should be made subject to the same requirements. Attendance at a university

alone is able to bridge the chasm which still separates the graduate of a seminary from that of a university. What applies to public school teachers, applies, possibly even in a higher degree, to teachers of the deaf. They certainly need a thorough training in psychology, pedagogical pathalogy, phonetics, anatomy and physiology of the senses, and the organs of speech, and the science of the German language, if they are to meet all the requirements of their high and important calling, where so many scientific problems still reman to be solved, if they are to further the cause by continued study and investigation. One foreign language at least should be thoroughly studied by persons wishing to become teachers of the deaf. By studying a foreign language, say for instance the French, a person does not only learn to know his mother tongue better—and no one needs this knowledge more than a teacher of the deaf—but he also experiences in his own person how difficult it is even for a person possessed of all his senses, to learn to understand and speak a foreign language; and thereby he acquires some perception of what it means for a deaf person to acquire in a few short hours of instruction, the phonetic, lexicographic, and the mere formal parts of the German language. No fault is found with the education of teachers of the deaf at our normal schools instituted for that purpose. They furnish all that can be justly expected of them. Only it is not enough; to keep step with the requirements of our rapidly progressing age, nothing will suffice but a central institution for the education of teachers of the deaf, connected with one of our universities.—Blätter für Taubstummenbildung.

COURSES FOR STUTTERING CHILDREN IN THE BERLIN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

During the winter half-year 1902-1903, fifteen courses for stuttering children were held at the public schools of Berlin. One hour a day was devoted to that purpose, the last school-hour, from 12 to 1, when the stuttering children were excused from attendance and were gathered in a special class. The number of participants in these courses was 194, viz., 146 boys and 48 girls,

varying in age from 7 to 14, the average age being 12, which age would properly have assigned them to the second grade in the public school while they nearly all belonged to the fourth grade, and had consequently lagged behind two grades. With the view to ascertain in how far this exceptional condition was caused by stuttering, data were gathered relative to the intellectual standard of the children, from which it appears that 92 (about 47.5 per cent.) were not below the normal intellectual standard, whilst 49 (about 27 per cent.) varied between "normal" and "weak." Although it must be admitted that the percentage of intellectually weak children is rather high, it bears no proportion to the above-mentioned retarded educational standard, which is another proof for the sad social significance of stuttering. Data were likewise obtained relative to hereditary diseases in the families of the stuttering children. There were nervous and mental diseases in 29 cases, alcoholism in 16, epilepsy in 12, stuttering in 7, and defects of hearing in 5 (of which one was absolute deafness). Among the diseases from which the children had suffered there are recorded: measles (139 times), scarlet fever (36 times), diphtherites (35 times). Besides these: inflammation of the lungs, chicken-pox, rhachitis; 24 children had not passed through diseases of any kind. In many cases the evil of stuttering made itself felt previous to any diseases. As regards the development of speech it was found that in 124 children the speech developed in proper time and normally, that consequently stuttering did not commence simultaneously with speech. Only as regards 11 children it could be shown that stuttering set in as soon as they commenced to speak. It is of course of great importance to ascertain at what time and from what causes the evil originated. The more correctly these data are ascertained, all the greater becomes the possibility to prevent the evil. Information regarding these points can only be obtained from the parents, and it will in many cases be difficult to verify it. Parents like to trace the stuttering of their children to some external cause, e. g., a fall, a blow, etc., and are therefore under the impression that they did not notice the defect until the child met with some accident or was taken with some disease. In a great many cases the parents, in answer to the question when their

child commenced to stutter, replied, "since the child attended school." Taking into account the cases where stuttering is stated to have set in during the sixth or seventh year, we find that 24 per cent., therefore nearly one-fourth, of all cases of stuttering begin simultaneously with the attendance at school. It is a well known fact that the number of stuttering children in the school is on the increase; but in spite of this, it would be a somewhat bold presumption to state that stuttering had set in only at the beginning of school attendance and owed its origin thereto. In comparatively numerous cases the third year is given as the period when stuttering began, therefore, that period in the development of speech when the child begins to abandon the imitative and turn to more independent speech. It is a striking circumstance that in sixty-seven children stuttering is alleged to have originated by imitation or contagion. In some cases the defect seems to have been handed down in a family from generation to generation, whilst in others the child got to stuttering through intercourse with neighbor's children or fellow pupils. Assuming that all these data are absolutely correct—and in the majority of cases they can be vouched for—it is certain that there is great danger of contagion, which should be prevented by taking the necessary precautionary measures. In 34 children disturbances of the organs of speech were noticed, and in 23 hearing was very defective, whilst one child was completely deaf. The weather, the seasons of the year, and the times of the day have a widely varying influence on stuttering children: with some it is worse in the morning, with others in the evening, in great heat or when the wind is high; in one case even it was found that the stuttering was worse at the time of the new moon. In about 25 cases damp, gloomy, and raw weather made the stuttering worse, which is easily understood as such weather has a depressing influence on the mind and therefore also on the speech.

As regards the method of instruction followed in these courses none of the teachers made the well known mistake to cure the evil by mechanical exercises in reading; but all conscientiously devoted their attention to mastering the muscles of breathing, voice, and articulation of their pupils. The teacher must know that this aim can be reached only by means of physio-

logically arranged exercises continued for some time, and he must strive with all his powers to reach this aim. It is a comparatively easy matter to teach children who stutter, in about two weeks to read or recite; but that does not mean that stuttering is cured. To regulate the breathing activity in speaking formed an essential part of the exercises, and contributed most to the success of the instruction. After the six months' course (one hour every school day) a final examination was held, where the children read, recited, asked questions, and answered questions asked not only by the teacher but by the inspector of schools and gentlemen in the audience. The result of the course was as follows: of 194 children 145 could be dimissed as completely cured of their stuttering, nearly all the others had improved a great deal, and might well be termed "nearly cured"; and only 2 showed no result whatever, but continued to stutter the same as when they entered the course. The children who participated in this course have two hours per week instruction—with the view to control their progress—during the summer half-year.—Medizinisch-pädagogische Monatisschrift für die gesammte Sprachheilkunde.

WHAT SPAIN IS DOING FOR ITS DEAF.

Dr. Hermann Gutzmann, Berlin, attended the international medical Congress which met at Madrid, in April, 1903, and embraced this opportunity to make himself acquainted with some of the efforts made in Spain to improve the condition of the deaf. He says in part: I visited the "Colegio Nacional de Sordomudos y Ciegos" (National College for the deaf and blind), in Madrid; which should undoubtedly be visited by every well-wisher of the deaf who travels in Spain, more especially as Spain is the first country in the world which has produced a work on the instruction of the deaf in speech. The buildings of this college are situated far beyond the city limits at the end of one of those wonderful avenues—peculiar to Madrid—lined by not less than seven rows of magnificent old shade trees. The building itself is quite new and very imposing and produces the impression of a museum. From the top of the broad flight of

stairs leading up to it, the snow covered summits of the Sierra de Guadarrama may be seen. Unfortunately thirty pupils of various ages are gathered in one class, which makes instruction exceedingly difficult. All the more wonderful are the results obtained by Director Granelli and his assistants. In the basement of the building are vast and admirably arranged workshops where the grown-up deaf—most of whom remain in the institution and are not compelled, as is the case in many other countries to seek their livelihood outside—follow some trade. The large printing office is particularly imposing, and many government reports are printed here. Recently it has produced a new edition, in fact a perfect facsimile, of the world-renowned book by Juan Pablo Bonet: "Simplification of letters, and the art of teaching the deaf to speak," which is a perfect masterpiece of the printer's art. Some short extracts may prove interesting: thus the notices regarding Pedro Ponce, who was Bonet's teacher (1770), which he found in the Convent of Ona. An account is given how Ponce taught the deaf from birth, not only to speak, write, read, and cipher, but also Latin, Greek, Italian, natural philosophy, and astrology. Still more important, because evidently quite impartial, is the report on the result of J. P. Bonet's instruction, by an Englishman, Mr. Kenelm Digby, who accompanied the Prince of Wales on a journey to Spain, where he had an opportunity to see a nobleman, deaf from birth, who had been instructed by Bonet. The report states that his speech was somewhat monotonous and not particularly well articulated, but that his lip-reading was perfect, so that he correctly read and spoke words from the lips not only of his teacher but also of the Prince of Wales. As Digby says, "He had learned to hear the words with his eyes." As a proof of the eminent educational capacities of the Spanish teachers of the deaf, the results which they obtained with a blind and deaf pupil, Martin de Martin y Ruiz, should be mentioned. This man was born deaf, became blind in his fourth year, and was admitted to the Madrid Institution when 17 years of age. Within one short year he acquired the sign-language, well articulated speech; in grammar, a knowledge of substantives, adjectives, and articles; in arithmetic, spoken and written figures, addition; in reading,

perfect reading of raised letters; in writing, perfect writing in point letters, but also with lead pencil according to Nelveda's system, and on the Foucault type-writer. Truly an astonishing result.—Medizinisch-pädagogische Monatsschrift für die gesammte Sprachheilkunche.

ON THE COMPENSATION OF THE SENSES.

The senses of man form the causes of the utterances of his will. Without the senses will and action are impossible. Even under perfectly normal conditions a compensation of the senses can be noticed. In walking, sight and touch lend their aid; in speaking, sight and hearing supplement each other.

With the deaf the sense of sight must to its fullest extent compensate for the lost sense of hearing; and this compensation is entirely natural and not brought about by artificial means, as even under normal conditions it will show itself. Endeavors have been made to bring about another compensation by exercising the remnants of hearing in the deaf. Careful investigations, however, have shown that the employment of these remnants, even by constant exercise, is exceedingly uncertain, and does by no manner of means come up to the compensation which the sense of sight furnishes. It was shown by actual experiment that the number of mistakes made by the deaf whose remnants of hearing had been exercised was 40 per cent., whilst with those who had practiced lip-reading it was only 20 per cent. In a combination of hearing and lip-reading it was only 10 per cent. This shows that hearing and lip-reading worked simultaneously diminish the mistakes to one-half of its percentage, whilst sight diminishes it three-fourths. It follows likewise that two senses employed simultaneously for the same purpose do not produce a mere addition of the impressions of the senses, but that the effect rather resembles a multiplication. If both sight and hearing are lost, the only possibility of compensating for these losses is to employ the sense of touch. But even under perfectly normal conditions the mutual compensation of the senses is a great advantage. The more and correctly selected tasks we set our senses, the more carefully we grasp their

impressions, the more strenuously we turn to every new impression, all the healthier and stronger will our body be. A person following this rule, will even in his old age remain youthful and full of vim.—Medizinische-pädagogische Monatsschrift für die gesammte Sprachheilkunde.

THE EVOLUTION FROM "ASYLUM" TO "SCHOOL" IN NORWAY.

The number of the Annals for September last had an article on the theme "Schools for the Deaf and for the Blind not Charitable Institutions." I hope that the following few facts may be elucidative as to the changes of public opinion in a European country concerning the education of the deaf.

In Norway the first school (governmental) was established in 1825 in consequence of a provision of 1824. This school was in the first period of its existence named sometimes an "*anstalt*" and sometimes an "*institut*" (in the plural *anstalter, instituter*), the former word meaning something between an asylum and an institution. The education not being regulated by law, the expenses were paid partly by the parents of the pupils, partly by grants from the state treasury, and partly by voluntary appropriations from the counties, townships, and cities. Poor parents were aided by the Poor-Law Boards. In the *Storthing* (National Assembly) such matters were considered by the Budget Committee.

When in 1848 and 1850 new schools—private with state aid—were started, they were named "*instituter.*"

In 1877 a Royal Commission was charged with the question of compulsory education for all abnormal children. Before it had concluded its work the *Storthing* ordered all matters relating to the education of such children to be transferred from the Budget Committee to the Committee for Ecclesiastical and Educational Matters, where the Public School budgets were considered.

In 1881 the new act passed, and in 1883 its provisions relating to the deaf and the blind came into force, and since this time the state and the local authorities have paid all the expenses of the education and board of the pupils.

The old names were, however, retained until 1900, when the term "*institut*" was replaced by "*skole*" (school) in the whole sphere of the act of 1881. The term "*dovstumme*" (deaf-mutes) was at the same time exchanged for "*dove*" (deaf). In other words, the "*dovstumme-institut*" of 1899 became in 1900 a "*skole for dove.*"—Lars A. Havstad, Christiania, in the American Annals for the Deaf.

BOOKS, PERIODICALS, AND REPORTS.

Short Account of the Tokyo Blind and Dumb School. Tokyo, Japan. 1903.

This is a publication in English, evidently from the pen of the Director of the school, Mr. S. Konishi, who is remembered as a visitor in various American schools some years ago. A detailed account is presented of the history of the school which shows a most progressive spirit in Japan as regards the education of the defective classes. In the education of the deaf much difficulty is experienced in the devising of proper and adequate methods of instruction on account of the lack of a phonetic alphabet, and because of the difference between the spoken and written language, the latter being in the arbitrary Chinese symbols. In 1880 a finger alphabet was devised, and was retained up to 1885, "when it was abolished on the ground that it was useless to study such an art, on account of no communication being thereby possible between deaf-mutes and their more favored fellows." The number of pupils now in the school is 107, of whom 41 are blind and 64 deaf. The book is finely illustrated and contains instructive statistical tables.

Report of the Inspector, on the Govan Oral School, Glasgow, 1903.

The Govan Parish School Board has a special class for deaf children in a room set apart for the purpose in Copeland Road Public School. There are at present 20 on the roll and there were 15 present when I visited the school in November last. The class is under the charge of a specially trained mistress and the results attained are, in the case of nearly all the children, markedly good. The older children who have had several years' train-

ing, read with wonderful fluency and distinctness, write to dictation, and reproduce little stories read to them by the teacher, and work sums in arithmetic with a readiness not very much behind that of ordinary pupils. There can be no doubt as to the success with which the intelligence of the children has been drawn out and cultivated. They are a bright, happy group, whom it is a pleasure to examine. The teaching of the ordinary branches is varied by clay modelling, wood-carving, and similar occupations. The class is altogether a very interesting and successful one.

Biblioteca Del Periodico "L'Educazione dei sordomuti" [Library of the Magazine "The Education of the Deaf"]. Edited by G. Ferreri.

The editor of the magazine "The Education of the Deaf," G. Ferreri, has initiated an occasional publication which will contain only foreign writings of our own special literature, either unprinted or rare, or never translated into Italian. The pamphlets already published are the following:

I. Some letters of Dr. John Wallis, Professor of Mathematics at the University of Oxford, on the instruction of the deaf (1661-1700). Collected and translated from English into Italian by G. Ferreri.

II. Two articles by Dr. Ernst Adolf Eschke, the first principal of the institute for the deaf in Berlin, published in the years 1796-97, in the German Magazine "Denkwürdigkeiten und Tagesgeschichte der Mark Brandenburg." Translation with an Introduction and Notes, by G. Ferreri.

Lettere e Recensioni relat ve alla Storia del R. Istituto Nazionale pei sordomuti in Genova [Letters and Reviews of the History of the Royal Institution for the Deaf at Genoa]. Edited by Rev. Silvio Monaci, principal of the Institution, Genoa. Tip. Sordomuti, 1903.

The favor with which the History of the National Institution for the Deaf, published on the occasion of its centennial in September, 1901, was received, induced the Committee of Admini-

stration to collect in a special pamphlet the letters of congratulation sent to the author, and the reviews of the work issued in domestic and foreign magazines, among the latter that in the ASSOCIATION REVIEW of April, 1902.

L'Educazione dei sordomuti [The Education of the Deaf], edited by G. Ferreri. Siena, Italy. October, November, and December, 1903.

"Mimics and Mimics." Under this title (October) the editor gives the results of an inquiry upon the following question: "What is the difference betweeen the mimics of the deaf and the mimics used by normal persons?" Six answers were given, among which the following seem worthy of reference;

I. The mimics of the deaf are a language; those of hearing persons are only illustrative of language.

II. The first materialize the thought and therefore do not translate its essential contents; the others render palpable and vivid the speech of the soul and sentiments by means of plastic gestures and corporeal postures, which emphasize and give substance to the sound of the voice.

III. The mimics of the deaf have always a limited sense and individual value, because they translate personal sensations and perceptions which are imperfect as the subject itself is imperfect; the mimics of hearing people, on the contrary, assume at once a conventional and generic signification, because they translate and illustrate perceptions and ideas which are common for every one.

P. Fornari (October, November, and December) reaches the end of the first part of his translation from the German of Dr. Gude's book, "On the Laws of Physiology and Psychology on the Formation of Movement, and the Instruction of the Deaf."

An interesting article by E. J. Kinsey, "Suggestions on the Management of the Voice," from the English magazine, The Teacher of the Deaf, is translated into Italian in the October number.

The question previously discussed by Fornari, Ferreri, and Kull of Zurich, upon the "synthetic and analytical method in the first teaching of articulation," is resumed by Fornari (November

and December). Italians and Germans often do not agree with each other in the denomination of this method, but they agree perfectly in the conclusion: that for the best results of the oral method we must follow the way indicated by Amman. We must therefore start from the elements of the word in order to come by and by to the composition of real words.

The editor gives to his readers a short account of the work of the American William Thornton, as a preface to the translation of the Appendix of "Cadmus," published in the "Transactions of the American Philosophical Society held at Philadelphia for promoting useful knowledge," Vol. III, Philadelphia, 1793, under the title: "On teaching the Surd, or Deaf and consequently Dumb, to speak."

An article of general interest in the December number, is that of Mr. Ferreri on the "Caprices of Children." The author shows that it is not true that psychologists and educators have not treated in their books these mysterious manifestations of infantile life. Although one cannot find in the text-books of pedagogy a chapter entitled "Caprices of Children," nevertheless it is a well known fact that educators can read in these books many chapters on the social commotions like fear, anger, jealousy, restlessness, and similar states of mind in children. And these are properly the principal causes of their caprices. According to a recent study on this subject, caprices can be divided into three classes, i. e., 1, caprices caused by a mental state of *misoneism*; 2, malicious caprices; 3, caprices quite similar to lunatic accesses, and these more frequently in children who are not perfectly healthy. Mr. Ferreri admits that the second and third of these classes are correct, but cannot accept the first one. Misoneism, he says, is aversion to new things. Therefore it must be derived from a reflex attitude of the mind which opposes itself intentionally to novelties. For this reason the word was chosen as a sign of accusation against conservatives in every kind of ideas and progress. Now such an attitude cannot exist in the mind of children, who are anything rather than conservatives. It was certainly for a reason opposed to misoneism that we regarded as characteristics of infancy the restlessness and irascible and changeable temper of the child. Horatius wrote:

"Reddere qui voces jam scit puer, et pede certo
signat humum, gestit paribus colludere, et iram
colligit, ac ponit temere, et mutatur in horas."

This picture although a little old, has not lost anything of its color, perhaps, because man has always been in every age the same. When we speak of children let us leave misoneism out of the question, and rather consider their changeable tempers, their accesses of anger with tears and cries and stamping of the feet for every slight effort to control their changeableness. Mr. Ferreri also speaks of the relative importance of the usual causes of caprices in children, and demonstrates the close connection between the psychic crises (from which the caprice is produced) and the physical-physiological crises. As a conclusion of this demonstration the author calls the attention of his readers to the cases in which the caprice has its greatest and most frequent explosions, i. e., 1, in childhood, on account of the continuous physical and physiological development of the child; 2, in young people during the period of puberty, which, as is well known, is longer or shorter according to the individual conditions of the constitution, and of physical development; 3, in old people, only in some pathological states and for troubles of digestion.

Besides the above mentioned causes of childish caprices, the author refers to some cases where there is a precocious idea of possession and of promise-breaking. From the last condition we derive this good rule for education: *Promise little and keep your word.*

As yet it is not well known if caprices are more or less frequent among the deaf than among hearing children. Where there are no kindergarten schools, the teachers have not the opportunity of making such researches, because: 1, the educators only come into contact with the deaf children after the time of childhood is passed; 2, the deaf child is easily subjugated and almost without any struggle by the suggestion of school surroundings and the authority of the teacher. Now the caprices caused by fear, irascible temper, jealousy, and broken promises lose in the common life of an institute, if not their entire causality, at least the frequency and weight of such motives.

A comparative study on the caprices of normal children and of those deprived of one of the social senses, as sight or hearing, should give, according to the opinion of Mr. Ferreri, this result: 1. In deaf children the majority of caprices depend on the irritability produced in them by the difficulty they find in understanding and in making themselves understood; on the other hand caprices which depend on sensations of fear of an acoustic nature, or on promise-breaking, are less frequent or do not exist at all. 2. In blind children irritability must be greater than in the deaf, because language learned in a natural way gives to the blind child the full consciousness of the good he is deprived of by his blindness. And by this limitation mothers and nurses lose the most common means of distraction in critical cases of caprices caused by the material conditions of the surroundings.

The author devotes much study to malicious caprices, and to those more frequent caused by abnormal conditions of health. In regard to both these kinds of caprices Mr. Ferreri reminds us of the great principle of Descartes, who wrote: "Mind depends so much on the temperament and disposition of the corporeal organs, that if it is possible to find a means to make man wiser and more capable, I think we should look for it in the science of medicine."

A short account of the meetings of the American teachers of the deaf at Boston, is given in the December number.

Nordisk Tidskrift for Dofstumskolan [Scandinavian Journal of Deaf-Mute Education], Nos. 8, 9 and 10. Göteborg (Sweden), September, October, 1903.

Contents: "Paul Gustaf Waldemar Isberg," "Jacob Saethre" —biographical sketches (with the portraits) of men who were prominent at the fifth annual meeting of Scandinavian teachers of the deaf, blind, weak-minded and idiotic, held at Stockholm during the summer of 1903; L. Mdh: "Account of the meeting" (just referred to); A. F. Nystrom: "Publication relative to said meeting"; J. Blomkvist: "On the spiritual care of the deaf who have left the institutions"; A. E. N.: "Valter Forsius," biographical sketch (with portrait) of this prominent Swedish teacher of the deaf.

The Teacher of the Deaf, Stoke-on-Trent, England, January, 1904.

The editors of The Teacher comment in this number upon the lack of interest in the periodical exhibited by teachers of the Deaf in England, as shown by the facts that they find it difficult to secure suitable contributions to its pages and that it is saved from financial loss only through the sympathetic interest of a few friends. It will be greatly to the discredit of members of the profession in Great Britain if this, their only representative publication, should fail for want of support.

Some of the articles are a sketch of Mr. G. H. Greenslade, recently appointed Head Master of the Doncaster Institution; "Why Systems Fail;" "Utility of Scholars' Progress Reports," by E. A. Kirk; "Practical Papers in Language Teaching, IV, the Elementary Stage," by A. J. Story; and "Notes from the Schoolroom," by P. A. Dodds.

The Messenger, Belfast, Ireland. January-February, 1904.

The following is the table of contents of this number: "British Deaf and Dumb Association Notes," "National Association of Teachers of the Deaf," "New Brunswick School for the Deaf," "A visit to Jersey," "The late Miss Sharp," "Doncaster Institution, Appointment of a new Head Master," "Within the Walls of Silence," "Mr. William Agnew," "A Deaf and Dumb Cat," "A Deaf Mute Warrior," "The Story of the School for the Deaf at Chefoo, China," "Mission News," "School Items," "International Congress of the Deaf at St. Louis."

Outlines for 1903-1904. Indianapolis, Indiana, Institution for the Education of the Deaf.

This is an annual publication, this number containing 65 pages, all valuable and convenient information for those connected with the Indianapolis School. There is always economy in system and order, and it may well be conceived that the school using "outlines" such as are before us, must be run in a systematic and orderly manner with the result to conserve large economies both of time and labor in instruction and administration.

American Annals of the Deaf, Washington, D. C., January, 1904.

The contents of this number are "Missionary Work," by Sarah Harvey Porter; "What it Costs to Educate the Deaf in Sweden," by P. N. Peterson; "Special Day Exercises," by Frances E. Gillespie; "Edith's First Two Years at School, II," by Theodore A. Kiesel; "The Evolution from Asylum to School in Norway," by Lars A. Havstad; The annual Tabular Statement of American Schools for the Deaf; the names and addresses of all American Instructors of the Deaf; Notices of Publications; and School Items.

REPORTS RECEIVED.

Report of the Schleswig-Holstein Provincial Deaf-Mute Association, 1901-1902.

Fourth Programme of the Institution for the Deaf at Osnabruck, Germany, 1903.

Forty-fourth annual report of the Gall, Switzerland, Institution for the Deaf, 1902-1903.

Report of the Public School for the Deaf at Trondhjem, Norway, 1902-1903. Memorial published on the occasion of the 25th jubilee of the Norwegian Association of the Deaf, Christiania, 1903.

Report of the Christiania Public School for the Deaf, 1902-1903.

Report of the Hamar (Norway) Public School for the Deaf, 1902-1903.

Report of the School for the Deaf at Venersborg (Sweden), 1902-1903.

Biennial Report of the Virginia School for the Deaf and Blind, at Staunton, 1902-1903, and a Prospectus for session of 1903-1904.

Report of visits to various Institutions for the Deaf and the Blind in Great Britain and America, by S. Watson, superintendent of the New South Wales Institution, Sydney, 1903.

Bulletin of Iowa State Institutions—a quarterly journal—October, 1903.

THE INSTITUTION PRESS.

SUPERINTENDENT WALKER HONORED.

At the fifty-first annual meeting of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, held in Milwaukee this week, Superintendent E. W. Walker of this school was honored by being elected president. Of the election the Delavan Enterprise says: "The result came with votes to spare upon the first ballot. The chief opponent for the honors was Prof. R. H. Halsey, president of the Oshkosh Normal school, though several other names had been mentioned. The honor came to Mr. Walker entirely unsolicited upon his part, his only candidacy being in the sense that he would accept it if offered to him."

The meeting was largely attended, 2,000 teachers being present. Prominent educators not only from our own state but from all over the country appeared on the program. State Superintendent C. P. Cary, formerly of this school, spoke upon "The Study of English."—Wisconsin Times.

A DEAF TEACHER AGREEABLY SURPRISED BY THE WORK OF AN ORAL CLASS.

Several days ago one of the teachers of an oral class was detained at her home on account of sickness, and Superintendent Hammond drafted Mr. Dold to teach her class in the morning, in addition to his regular class. Mr. Dold is minus his hearing, though he still possesses his speech, and he decided to ascertain for himself what progress the children made in lip-reading. He was agreeably surprised, for everything he spoke to them was readily understood, as the correct answers written by them on their slates attested. All morning, while in that classroom, Mr. Dold spoke orally to the pupils, and we wonder whether he now believes in pure oralism or is still an adherent of the combined system.—Kansas Star.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE CHEFOO, CHINA, SCHOOL.

We are in receipt of a letter from Dr. G. O. Fay, of the Hartford School for the Deaf, dated October 16th, with an enclosure of a check for $75.00, a contribution to the Chefoo School from their Christian Endeavor Society of which Miss Meier is president.

October 30th, Dr. Westervelt forwarded to Mrs. Mills a London draft for £19-10-1 (equivalent to $95.00). Twenty dollars of this amount came from the Kentucky School for the Deaf and the other seventy-five dollars from the Hartford School, as we have mentioned above.—Rochester Daily Advocate (N. Y.)

FREEDOM OF THE TEACHER.

One excellent point in the compliment paid American Schools for the Deaf by Head Master Nelson of the Royal Schools for the Deaf at Manchester, England, is that referring to the great freedom of teachers in the former schools in teaching this or that subject in the way they think best, etc. When a teacher's freedom of thought and action are curtailed, very often that teacher's usefulness is at an end. It may even be asserted that a teacher's opposition on broad and rational grounds to the teaching of certain subjects or following certain methods not infrequently leads to progress. It pays to permit teachers to do their own thinking. It is said that in some of the department stores in Chicago, if an employe makes any improvement or introduces a helpful innovation in his line, promotion or reward in some form is the result.—Wisconsin Times.

FIFTEEN PER CENT. OF THE DEAF ABLE TO CONVERSE WITH HEARING PEOPLE.

Statistics indicate that two-thirds of deaf-mutes of all sorts can converse readily on commonplace subjects with their teachers, folks, and intimate friends, but only one-fifth of this number are able to converse with strangers on ordinary subjects: that is, about one-seventh of them or 15 in every 100 deaf people can converse with hearing people.—California News.

EDITORIAL COMMENT.

THE CARE OF THE CHILDREN AT THE EXPOSITION.

Mr. Alvin E. Pope, superintendent in charge of the model schools for the deaf and the blind at the St. Louis Exposition, gives elsewhere in this number a detailed and full account of the provisions to be made for the comfort and safety of the children who will take part in the proposed living exhibits of class and school work during the several months of the Exposition.

It would seem from careful reading that these provisions will be ample in all respects, and they should satisfy the most careful and exacting of superintendents or of parents. The children having reached St. Louis and the fair grounds, they will have healthful and comfortable quarters, with the best of food well prepared, and they will, morever, be under the constant care and guidance of teachers and supervisors, and, when necessary, of policemen; medical attendance, too, will be at hand to respond upon every occasion of need. With such attention and care, it is possible that the children will be, at least in some instances, even better provided for and safer from harm than they would be at the schools or at their homes during the vacation period.

Of course there are the dangers of travel in the journey to and from St. Louis, but in the cases at least of the near-by schools, these dangers will be inconsiderable, and it is probable the schools nearest St. Louis will furnish the greater portion of the children sent.

These ample and comfortable provisions for the children being in prospect, it rests with the schools for the deaf and for the blind of the country to avail themselves of the privileges offered them and to make the Exposition in this part the great success that with their cooperation it may very well be; for, as Mr. Pope says, "such an opportunity may never again be presented to the schools of this country." F. W. B.

WRIST READING BY THE BLIND DEAF.

In two communications to The Messenger, published at the Alabama school, Mr. William Wade discusses the ability of the blind-deaf to understand what is said to them by finger-spelling when their hands are not touching the fingers but rest upon the wrist of the speaker. This is an interesting fact of far-reaching possibilities, and one that, so far as we are aware, has not heretofore been made public; but it does not appear difficult of explanation. It is doubtless analogous to the reading of sounds on the lips by one who has been instructed in the art of speech-reading. As sounds issuing from the mouth produce corresponding lip movements, so the motions of the fingers in making the letters of the manual alphabet are expressed in the contractions of the wrist cords, and the bendings and turnings of the wrist itself. It may be that it is not possible to identify each letter, when taken separately, by this means, just as in speech-reading there are certain sounds that cannot be distinguished from one another by lip positions; but, in either case, the natural context gives the clue to what is being said. To carry the analogy farther, it is probable that the deaf-blind no more think of the motions of the fingers when reading by wrist movements than the deaf do of sound when reading speech. S. G. D.

In the annual report of the General Secretary to the Board of Directors recently submitted, the following figures were given showing in part the work of the Teachers' Bureau during the past three years. The number of persons making use of the Bureau in 1901 was 83; in 1902, 98; and in 1903, 103. About 70 per cent. of these persons, the percentage varying with the years, were teachers seeking positions, the remainder being superintendents and parents asking for teachers.

A life sketch of the late James Simpson, ex-Superintendent of the South Dakota School, prepared for this number of the Review, is necessarily held over for the forthcoming April number.

THE ANNALS STATISTICS.

The American Annals of the Deaf for January, 1904, Vol. XLIX, pp. 38 to 56, gives its usual annual statistical tables relating to the pupils and teachers in American Schools for the Deaf reported present November 10, 1903. We note a commendable improvement in the arrangement of the schools, now presented in alphabetical order by states instead of as formerly in the historical order of their establishment.

The number of schools reported increased in the year from 123 to 128, an addition of five, of which four are day-schools and one is a private school.

An increase of 273 is shown in the number of pupils in school on November 10, the total for 1902 being 10,952 and for 1903, 11,225.

The number of pupils taught speech (column A) was increased in the year by 465, or from 7,017 to 7,482; while the number taught wholly or chiefly by the oral method (column B) was increased by 545, or from 4,888 to 5,433; an increase was also made of 37 in the number reported as taught wholly or chiefly by the auricular method, bringing the total of pupils so taught to 100.

The number of academic teachers increased from 1,039 in 1902, to 1,065 in 1903, an addition of 26. The number of articulation teachers increased in the year from 664 to 696, an addition of 32, which is an increase of 4.8 per cent. in this class of teachers. The articulation teachers of the country now comprise 65.4 per cent. of the entire body of academic teachers engaged in the work. A year ago the percentage was 63.9.

The following tables give the footings of the Annals tables for the years from 1893 to 1903 inclusive with percentages computed from them. (See also tables published in THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, June, 1903, p. 301 and pp. 308 and 309.)

SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.

Statistics from the *Annals.*

Year	Total Schools	Total Pupils	Number of pupils Taught Speech			Percentage of pupils Taught Speech		
			A	B	C	A	B	C
1893.....	79	8304	4485	2056	80	54.0%	24.7%	0.96%
1894.....	82	8825	4802	2260	109	54.4%	25.6%	1.24%
1895.....	89	9252	5084	2570	149	54.9%	27.7%	1.61%
1896.....	89	9554	5243	2752	166	54.9%	28.8%	1.74%
1897...	95	9749	5498	3466	162	56.4%	35.6%	1.66%
1898.....	101	10139	5817	3672	116	57.4%	36.2%	1.14%
1899..... ...	112	10087	6237	4089	128	61.8%	40.5%	1.27%
1900..... ...	115	10608	6687	4538	108	63.0%	42.8%	1.02%
1901.....	118	11028	6988	5147	73	63.4%	46.7%	0.66%
1902.....	123	10952	7017	4888	63	64.1%	44.6%	0.58%
1903..... ...	128	11225	7482	5433	100	66.6%	48.4%	0.89%

A, taught speech; B, taught wholly or chiefly by the Oral Method; C, taught wholly or chiefly by the Auricular Method.

INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.

Statistics from the *Annals.*

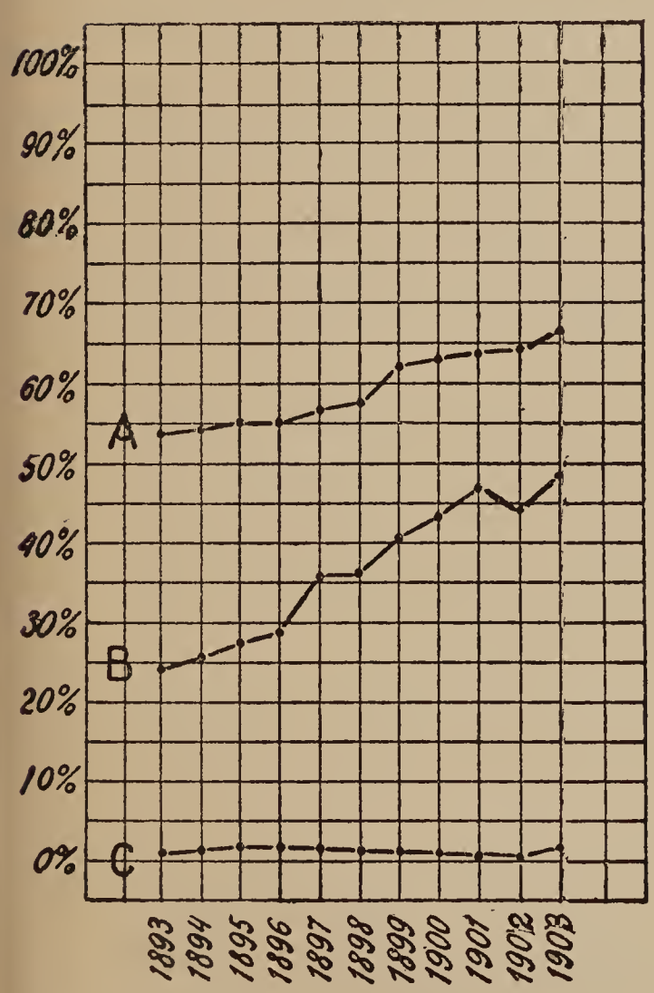
Year	Not including Industrial Teachers			Including Industrial Teachers		
	Total Teachers	Articulation Teachers		Total Teachers	Articulation Teachers	
		Number	Percentage		Number	Percentage
1893.....	765	331	43.3%	....	....	.....
1894.....	784	372	47.4%	....	...	.....
1895.....	835	397	47.5%	....	....	.....
1896.....	879	427	48.6%	....	....	.....
1897.....	928	487	52.5%	1188	487	41.0%
1898.....	949	530	55.8%	1253	530	42.3%
1899.....	986	561	56.9%	1309	561	42.9%
1900.....	1010	588	58.2%	1353	588	43.5%
1901.....	1027	641	62.4%	1385	641	46.3%
1902.....	1039	664	63.9%	1388	664	47.8%
1903	1065	696	65.4%	1438	696	48.4%

The five additional schools reported by the Annals are located one in Aurora, Ill., in charge of Miss Maggie Neel Proctor; one in Dundee, Ill., in charge of Miss Elizabeth Stephenson; one in Jackson, Mich., in charge of Miss Gertrude A. Coleman; one in Ashtabula, Ohio, in charge of Mrs. Rosa Keeler, and one in New York City, in charge of Mrs. A. Reno Margulies.

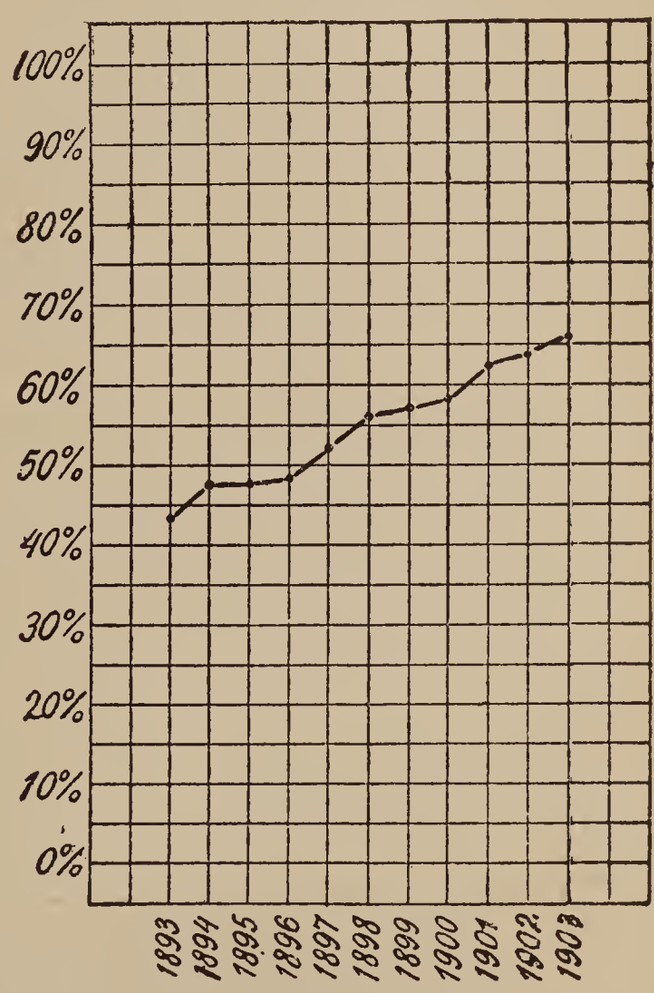
The foregoing tables are in the direction and measure of the changes that they show, illustrated in the following diagrams:

SPEECH STATISTICS FROM THE ANNALS GRAPHICALLY SHOWN.

Percentage of Pupils Taught Sp eech.



Percentage of Academic Instructors who are Articulation Teachers.



Pupils (A) taught speech; (B) taught wholly or chiefly by the oral method; (C) taught wholly or chiefly by the auricular method. F. W. B.

THE SEVENTEENTH MEETING OF THE CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF.

GALLAUDET COLLEGE,
WASHINGTON, D. C., Dec. 18, 1903.

To the Members of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf:

At the last meeting of the Convention, held in Buffalo in July, 1901, it was decided to accept the invitation of the authorities of the North Carolina School for the Deaf at Morganton, to hold the next Convention at that School.

This meeting, in accordance with our custom, would be held in the summer of 1904, but, as you are all aware, there is to be a very interesting exposition in progress during next summer at St. Louis. Much discussion has been had among members of the Convention with regard to the desirability of postponing its next meeting so that it shall not conflict with the Exposition, and after very full consideration the Standing Executive Committee of the Convention has voted to postpone the meeting until the summer of 1905.

The authorities of the North Carolina School, while regretting that conditions are such as to require the postponement of the Convention, are satisfied that this will be the wisest course to pursue. They promise a cordial welcome to the Convention in the summer of 1905, and hope for a large attendance of members.

E. M. GALLAUDET,
President of the Convention.

Mr. George H. Greenslade, for eighteen years Head Assistant, has been appointed Head Master of the Yorkshire Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Doncaster, England, succeeding in this position the late lamented James Howard.

NEW MEMBERS.

The following named persons have been elected to membership in the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, since the last report:

Akins, Anna, School for the Deaf, Detroit, Michigan.
Allen, Hon. George, Pres. Board, School for the Blind and Deaf, Raleigh, North Carolina.
Anderson, Mamie, Elk Point, South Dakota.
Andrews, Cordelia, School for the Deaf, Little Rock, Arkansas.
Austin, Ida L., School for the Deaf, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
Autenrich, May, School for the Deaf, Omaha, Nebraska.
Aymar, Mary A., 4 Edwards St., Medford, Mass.
Bagnal, Mrs. I. I., Manning, South Carolina.
Ball, Jessie, School for the Deaf, Detroit, Michigan.
Barr, James A., Stockton, California.
Bateman, George, School for the Deaf, Halifax, Nova Scotia.
Beard, Lena, Lawrence, Kansas.
Beatty, Mrs. Charles, Chanute, Kansas.
Beatty, Mary H., 207 Simcoe St., Toronto, Canada.
Becher, Carl, De Doves Laeseforening, Copenhagen, Denmark.
Beck, Winnifred A., School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Indiana.
Benton, Ella, Savannah, Ashland Co., Ohio.
Bettinger, M. C., Los Angeles, California.
Black, John, 1614 McCulloh St., Baltimore, Md.
Blanford, H. S., Walla Walla, Washington.
Brown, Grace, School for the Deaf, Albany, New York.
Brown, Mattie, 56 Rowley St., Rochester, New York.
Buchan, Miss B., Owen Sound, Ontario.
Buckingham, Abbie, E. Court St., Flint, Michigan.
Buckingham, Eva E., School for the Deaf, Station M., New York City.
Buckingham, Geo. H., Mass. Inst. of Technology, Boston, Mass.
Bullis, Katherine, M., 74 Adams West, Detroit, Michigan.
Burk, F. M., 309 E. Main St., Walla Walla, Washington.
Burlingham, Hon. Chas. C., 45 William St., New York City.
Burns, Mrs. James F., 278 Walnut St., Freeport, Illinois.
Butts, Dr. G. W., Chuckatuck, Virginia.
Bumgardner, Nellie, School for the Deaf, Staunton, Virginia.
Carter, Frances, School for the Deaf, Halifax, Nova Scotia.
Chambers, Rev. Thos. B., St. Xavier's College, Cincinnati, Ohio.
Chapin, Rev. Wm. M., Barrington Centre, Rhode Island.
Clarke, Hon. Harvey C., State Board of Control, Monroe, Wisconsin.
Clarkson, Mrs. S. M., 2113 Lady St., Columbia, South Carolina.
Cleary, Edward, School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Illinois.
Cochrane, W. A., Delavan, Wisconsin.
Colgate, James C., 36 Wall St., New York City.
Collier, W. C., Chamber of Commerce, Nashville, Tenn.
Condon, Anna, School for the Deaf, Grand Rapids, Michigan.
Constantine, Jolliette E., School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Ind.
Cooper, Mildred H., School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Ill.
Criffield, Wm. R., East and Division Sts., Walla Walla, Washington.
Croker, Gertrude, Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
Crossette, I. R., 115 Houston Ave., Muskegon, Michigan.
Crossette, Mrs. I R., 115 Houston Ave., Muskegon, Michigan.
Crumley, Linda, School for the Deaf, Edgewood Park, Pa.

Cummings, Sarah, School for the Deaf, Knoxville, Tenn.
Cuthbert, Thos. N., 15 Cortlandt St., New York City.
Davidson, F. P., San Diego, Cal.
Dean, Mrs. Dosia, School for the Deaf, Detroit, Michigan.
Delafield, Mrs. Frederick P., 635 Park Ave., New York City.
Delafield, Mrs. Lewis L., 475 Fifth Ave., New York City.
Denio, Prof. Francis B., Bangor, Maine.
Dewar, Frances, School for the Deaf, Saginaw, Michigan.
Dillon, Marie L., School for the Deaf, Trenton, N. J.
Dorsey, Alice A., 204 Court St., Maysville, Ky.
Dost, Ernst, Alexanderplatz 4, Berlin C., Germany.
Doty, Mrs. L., 6030 Kimbark Ave., Chicago, Illinois.
Dumon, Lucie, School for the Deaf, Detroit, Michigan.
Dunbar, Evelina, Staunton, Virginia.
Ellis, Dr. H. Bert, Los Angeles, California.
Fairbarn, Sir Arthur H., Bart., 45 Brunswick Sq., Brighton, England.
Fanning, Miss M., School for the Deaf, Halifax, Nova Scotia.
Fant, Mrs. M. A., Townville, South Carolina.
Ferguson, Elizabeth, School for the Deaf, Jacksonville, Illinois.
Finlay, Clara, School for the Deaf, Baton Rouge, La.
Fiske, Dr. G. F., 100 State St., Chicago, Illinois.
Fox, Chas. C., Danville, Kentucky.
Freischman, Charles L., 430 Hanover St., Milwaukee, Wis.
French, Rev. J. A., Austin, Texas.
Fritz, Katharine, Tiffin, Ohio.
Galt-Smith, Mrs. J., 145 West 73rd St., New York City.
Gamble, Matie B., Wausau, Wisconsin.
George, Mrs. Henry, Jr., 180 St. Nicholas Ave., New York City.
Gillett, Arthur, 430 Randolph St., Indianapolis, Indiana.
Gillman, Dr. Robert W., 107 Fort St. West, Detroit, Michigan.
Goldsmith. Ida, 53 West 89th St., New York City.
Garcia, Dir. Trinidad, Callejon, Corpus Christi 414, Mexico City.
Gaston, Cambria, 211 West St., Jackson, Miss.
Goldsmith, Otto M., 44 W. 44th St., New York City.
Gray, F. R., 2032 Perryville Ave., Allegheny, Penna.
Gray, W. F., Delavan, Wisconsin.
Gregory, Charles, Walla Walla, Washington.
Greenbaum, Hon. Samuel, 2 East 94th St., New York City.
Greene, Elizabeth T., 886 St. Nicholas Ave., New York City.
Greene, Dr. R. H., 47 West 38th St., New York City.
Guthrie, May L., School for the Deaf, Detroit, Michigan.
Grarud, Dr. G., Mem. of Parliament, Holmestrand, Norway.
Hagerty, Thomas, Delavan, Wisconsin.
Hammond, Ethel, School for the Deaf, Omaha, Nebraska.
Harris, Prof. James C., Rome, Georgia.
Hartman, John, Gowen Ave., Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Hawkins, Olive E., School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Indiana.
Hodge, Mrs. Alice Cogswell Weld, Chestnut Hill, Philadelphia, Pa.
Hoerschelmann, Direktor A. C., Alt Fennern, Livonia, Russia.
Hoffman, F. B., 58 Seventy-ninth St., New York City.
Holloway, Frances, School for the Deaf, Baton Rouge, La.
Holmsen, Chr., Skovvsien 27III, Christiania, Norway.
Holverson, Mrs. A. H., 1220 W. Green St., Rockford, Ill.
Hostetter, Alice, Colwyn, Del. Co., Penna.
Hough, Helen V., 9 Union Place, Newton, New Jersey.
Holden, Mrs. Jennie V., 12 Hall St., W. Somerville, Mass.
Hubble, Cliffie, School for the Deaf, Little Rock, Ark.

Humphreys, Evelyn, School for the Deaf, Omaha, Nebraska.
Hunt, A. W., Aberdeen, South Dakota.
Hurlbut, Fred., Green Bay, Wisconsin.
Irby, Miss M. L., Cedar Spring, South Carolina.
James, Mrs. W. C., 543 N. Eighth St., Walla Walla, Washington.
Jones, Eleanor P., 35 River St., Carbondale, Pa.
Kaufman, Mrs. B., 117 West 58th St., New York City.
Kendall, Messmore, 27 William St., New York City.
Kern, Prof. O. J., Supt. County Schools, Rockford, Ill.
Kidder, Chas. W., Emerson College of Oratory, Boston, Mass.
Kirk. Edward A., School for he Deaf, Blenheim Walk, Leeds, England.
Kirk, Thos. J., Supt. of Public Instruction, Sacramento, Cal.
Kirkpatrick, Anna, School for the Deaf, Omaha, Neb.
Kjellberg, S. W., Stampgatan 50, Goteborg, Sweden.
Koch, Annie, Parkgatan 3, Goteborg, Sweden.
Koen, Joe, Austin, Texas.
Krohn, I. M., 1116 Cypress St., Walnut Hills, Cincinnati, Ohio.
La Motte, Edith, 904 Lexington Ave., New York City.
Larkey, George E., 3509 Hough Ave., Los Angeles, Cal.
Larsen, F. C., Delavan, Wisconsin.
Lauritzen, John, Fergus Falls, Minn.
Layton, Nanetta, School for the Deaf, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
Le Clercq, Chas. J., 2141 Eighth Ave., New York City.
Le Clercq, Mrs. Chas. J., 2141 Eighth Ave., New York City.
Lewis, Edna B., School for the Deaf, Station M, New York City.
Lewis, Irving C., 977 Sixth Ave., Oakland, Cal,
Lindberg, Alfred, Manilla Dofestumskola, Stockholm, Sweden.
Lindsay, Hon Jas. H., Charlottesville, Va.
Loader, Miss M. L., 5 Richmond Terrace, Brighton, England.
Locher, Mrs. Chas. H., 207 S. Queen St., Lancaster, Penna.
Lockridge, I. P., Austin, Texas.
Lynch, Tilman D., 816 Wallace St., Wilkinsburg, Pa.
Martin, Paul, School for the Deaf, Austin, Texas.
Martindale, Wales C., Supt. of Schools, Detroit, Michigan.
McCallum, Mary, School for the Deaf, Knoxville, Tenn.
McCool, Sarah, 904 Lexington Ave., New York City.
McCue, A. H., Fishersville, Virginia.
Meade, Mrs. L. C., Yankton, South Dakota.
Menefee, Elizabeth, 933 Ramsey St., Wilkinsburg, Pa.
Menefee, Martha, 933 Ramsey St., Wilkinsburg, Pa.
Meyer, Mrs. H. W., 675 Morrison St., Appleton, Wis.
Meza, Dr. Francisco, Instituto de Sordo Mudos, Santiago, Chili.
Miller, Malinda K., School for the Deaf, Rome, New York.
Mills, Thos. B., Superior, Wisconsin.
Moerder, Gen. J., 35 Baskow, St. Petersburg, Russia.
Monlux, J. B., Los Angeles, California.
Morrison, Alice F., Vineland, New Jersey.
Mullin, Mrs. C., 2203 Grant St., Omaha, Neb.
Murphy, Whitley, School for the Deaf, Staunton, Va.
Murphy, J. J., School for the Deaf, Delavan, Wisconsin.
Pach, Mrs. A. L., 56 West 105th St., New York City.
Palmer, Gen. W. J., Box 1208, Colorado Springs, Col.
Pancoast, Miss M. A., 20 Central Park W., New York City.
Parminter, Grace, 4319 Berkeley Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Patron, Dr. Augustin Risso, Instituto de Sordo Mudos, La Plata, Argentinia.

Peter, Mrs. Rena, Olathe Kansas.
Pettapiece, Laura E., School for the Deaf, Milwaukee, Wis.
Pioda, Dr. Alfred, Locarno, Switzerland.
Powell, Mrs. Wm. E. M., 449 Manning Ave., Toronto, Canada.
Prince, Ernest, School for the Deaf, St. John's, N. B.
Proctor, Margaret N., 1627 Sheridan Road, Chicago, Ill.
Read, Elizabeth M., Danville, Kentucky.
Rhodes, Elizabeth K., Delavan, Wisconsin.
Richards, Chas. L., East Longmeadow, Mass.
Ritter, W. C., Hampton, Virginia.
Robinson, Warren, School for the Deaf, Delavan, Wisconsin.
Rodes, Hon. B. O., Danville, Kentucky.
Roorda, P., School for the Deaf, Groningen, Holland.
Rowell, Mrs. Geo., 6810 Wentworth Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Ruggles, Jenny L., School for the Deaf, Station M, New York City.
Sawallisch, Direktor W., Elberfield, Rheinprovince, Prussia.
Scheuer, Mrs. Morris, 1190 Madison Ave., New York City.
Schrock, Nellie J., School for the Deaf, Indianapolis, Indiana.
Scott, Mrs. F. J., 6548 Normal Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Senter, Augusta, 494 Kensington Place, Pasadena, Cal.
Shaw, Mary, Edgemont Ave., Chester, Pa.
Shelton, Agnes, Jackson, Mississippi.
Smith, Bertha S., 74 Adams W., Detroit, Michigan.
Smith, Dr. Stephen, 3 West 92nd St., New York City.
Spaight, Augusta, School for the Deaf, Winnipeg, Manitoba.
Stevens, Mrs. W. H., Ten Eyck St., Watertown, New York.
Stratton, Hon. J. R., Provincial Sec. of Ontario, Toronto, Canada.
Sturgis, 152 East 38th St., New York City.
Tansley, Dr. J. Oscroft, 28 W. 43rd St., New York City.
Taylor, Harold L., School for the Deaf, Margate, England.
Thomas, Hon. D. C., Watertown, South Dakota.
Thompson, Anne C., 130 Murray St., Binghamton, New York.
Tipton, Judge, Mitchell, South Dakota.
Trieschman, Chas. S., 430 Hanover St., Milwaukee, Wis.
Trinks, C., 49 Audubon Ave., New York City.
Van Adestine, Gertrude, School for the Deaf, Calumet, Mich.
Walker, E. W., School for the Deaf, Delavan, Wisconsin.
Walker, Mrs. Fannie R., 52 Cedar St., West Somerville, Mass.
Walker, Prof. P. R., 716 N. Church St., Rockford, Illinois.
Walther, Eduard, Elsasserstr No. 88, Berlin, N. 24, Germany.
Warren, Josephine, Stanford, Kentucky.
Weber, Mrs. Frederick, Church St., Kingsbridge, New York City.
White, Annie E., Clarke School, Northampton, Mass.
Wiberg, Gosta, Ran. 10, Garda, Goterborg, Sweden.
Williams, Belle, School for the Deaf, Rome, New York.
Wolff, Mrs. Franz R., 118 West 57th St., New York City.
Wood, Mrs. James, 14 Mt. Morris Park W., New York City.
Wynne, Marjorie, Kingsbridge Library, Riverdale Ave., New York City.
Young, Alexina E., 6945 Yale Ave., Chicago, Ill.
Zane, Mary S., Home for Deaf Children, Bala, Philadelphia.
Zassenhaus, Mary, Colby, Wisconsin.
Zimmer, George, 614 Bridge St., Lowell, Mass.
Zimmerman, John E., Trinidad, Colorado.

THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW.

VOL. VI, NO. 2.

APRIL, 1904.

THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF FOR LIFE IN HUMAN SOCIETY.[1]

O. DANGER, EMDEN, GERMANY.

Honored Representatives of the Government authorities: Ladies and Gentlemen:

When I declared my willingness to speak in the place of our sick colleague Mr. Kraiss, on the subject chosen by him, viz.: "The education of the deaf for life in human society," our honored President called me "a saving angel." You must not expect, however, that I shall talk to you with an angel's tongue. I am lacking in the principal characteristics of an angel, for I do not have wings to carry me to ethereal heights. Once upon a time, alas long ago! I attempted to rise above this sordid world, to "the realm of ideals." But I did not share the fate of Ikaros. We all know that the wax which held his wings together melted when he came too near to the sun. My wings, on the other hand, froze when for fourteen years I had to do drudgery in the icy desert of "strange surroundings." I must, therefore, take good care not to leave the solid ground of reality.

But to come to the point: I have taken up Mr. Kraiss's subject. Its leading ideas are well known to you; but in the short time allowed me for preparing this paper, I could not do full justice to the subject. Yesterday our President asked me, "Will you be long or short?" With the view to give ample time

[1]Extract from the paper read at the Sixth Meeting of the Association of German Teachers of the Deaf at Frankfurt-on-the-Main, September 28th to October 1st, 1903. Translation by H. Jacobson, Washington.

for dicussion, I replied, "Short." Consequently, I shall speak to you only on two points, viz.: "On the education of the deaf for life in human society, during the time the deaf are at school," and "What should be done by institutions for the deaf in this respect after the pupils have left school?"

THE AIM OF THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF, WHILST AT SCHOOL, FOR LIFE IN HUMAN SOCIETY.

1. It must be our aim to advance our deaf pupils so they may become self-supporting members of the communities of this world.

As to the proper meaning of the term "self-supporting" (or independent) we will leave this to the discussion which is to follow the reading of my paper. Any one who assumes that only those high up in the world are really independent, will probably tell me that in our days only few of the deaf can become independent. But I am constrained to doubt the correctness of the statement that only persons high up in the world are independent, or are even more independent than those below them who do not willingly become the slave of party leaders. Our pupils are all, more or less, feeble children, and it is a well known fact that the great majority of them come from poor families. There is absolutely no reason why they should be raised to a social position higher than the one which they would occupy if they were not deaf, therefore less feeble. Their brothers and sisters possessed of all their senses have, in the majority of cases, to earn their living as mechanics, farmers, laborers, tailors, or dressmakers, and if they are particularly successful, in subordinate positions in establishments of industrial art. In such positions they are at any rate not dependent on the charity of their fellow-beings, and are therefore what one calls independent. We should not aim at a greater degree of independence for our pupils. In positions requiring simple duties they will be able to maintain their independence, if at school they have been educated to cheerful labor, skill, modesty, friendliness, a tendency to oblige, and other virtues. They may be called independent even if they only have to fulfil the duties of a cobbler or a ser-

vant, in so far as their character has been strengthened, so that they are not moved by every whiff of circumstances.

The life in human society which our pupils will have to enter after they have left school, is not to be artificially created by us; it is something that is given. It is not the world of the deaf, but the world of human beings possessed of all their senses. Our first aim, therefore, must be to give to the deaf the speech of that world, not the speech of books, but the speech of life, of daily intercourse. Persons who desire to devote themselves to science, need the speech of books. Feeble persons are not cut out for a scientific career; therefore, our pupils are not intended for such a career. What they need in their life with and among persons possessed of all their senses, is the speech of daily intercourse. This speech the deaf can acquire to satisfy all reasonable demands, but not merely by constant practice during school-hours. Large boarding schools must therefore be considered as institutions least suited for educating the deaf for human society. No artificial means can change this condition, even if the pupils are not only separated, as A, B, and C pupils, but separated according to all the letters of the alphabet. What can be accomplished in small boarding schools having a family character is shown by the Frankfurt institution; but the conditions which prevail here can be reached in but very few other places. The best place for learning and practicing the speech of daily intercourse is the day school kept under strict surveillance.

The second aim to be reached in educating the deaf for life in human society, life among persons possessed of all their senses, is to strengthen and cultivate in the deaf a love of home, a love of the family, be that family high or low. The home is the sphere in which they will easiest be able to attain to an independent existence. During the time the deaf are at school they must not be estranged from the customs and habits of their home. The deaf who come from a city where industrial art is flourishing, a city in which later on they can find permanent and remunerative employment in lithographic, xylographic, and similar establishments, must be educated differently from the deaf who come from sections of the country where farming and mechanical industries are the main occupation of the people.

This applies to instruction, to the entire education, and to all the external measures for furthering the same. If children were received in the magnificently arranged institution for the deaf at Frankfurt, whose families live in shanties on the moors, in the cramped houses of laborers in our mountain villages, or the marshes of our west coast; if such children, I say, were brought to this great, wealthy, and beautiful city, it would not be astonishing if during the time spent at school they would become entirely estranged from their home and its conditions, so that in after life the words of the poet could be applied to them: "What I used to enjoy as a simple knight, I will not miss as an Emperor." Which of the children above referred to will in after life attain to a position where he has the means of enjoying the comforts which here are offered to deaf children? Certainly but very few. And if the after life does not fulfil the promises of youth, the consequence is dissatisfaction, unhappiness, lack of independence. We have unfortunately but too often made this observation as regards the adult deaf. The aim of instruction and education, both mental and physical, of more or less normally endowed deaf children, must be independence in the life of human society of persons possessed of all their senses.

Another aim must be set for backward deaf children, such an aim as they are able to reach. For these poor children the "world of the deaf" will be that society where they can make the best use of their limited strength, and where they are most likely to lead a happy life. In the case of these children it is not necessary during the time they are at school to pay as much attention to the acquirement of the spoken language as must be done in the case of the mentally normal deaf. It will be far more important to accustom them during their schooling, to a life which seeks its happiness in cheerful labor. In this respect we can learn a good deal from the institutions for the deaf in the United States.

2. It is furthermore our aim to guide our pupils in that way which is to lead them safely to their heavenly home.

The way which leads there has been given to us: it is the way to and through Jesus, to whom our pupils were dedicated in baptism. I, therefore, did not consider it necessary to speak in

this assembly on that given way. But I have been informed that this was expected of me, because for more than a generation, I have given to deaf pupils the final instruction in religion. Therefore, let us in this very instruction never forget that our pupils are feeble beings. "Dost thou understand what thou readest?" Philip asked the Eunuch from Ethiopia. Philip's instruction to him may be compressed into three words: "Sin, redemption, peace." But each one of these words is so full and rich in its meaning, that it is impossible to master with our pupils all that religious knowledge which, according to the text books prepared from the Old and New Testaments, is considered necessary in many places. The entire Bible will never become the proper book of edification for the deaf.

Let the spirit of Christ pervade our institutions! To love Christ is better than all religious knowledge, better especially than half-knowledge. By this, people will know that our pupils are followers of Christ, that they have love one for another.

Are the conditions under which we labor sufficient to reach the aim which our pupils must attain to? The very comparison of the education of the deaf with the education given in our public schools will furnish an answer. Our course of instruction does not comprise more years than that of the public schools, although the children admitted to the public schools already possess speech, whilst one of our main objects is to give speech to our pupils. As the majority of the leaders among our public school teachers have declared that the public school cannot reach its aim in an eight years' course, and as the government has fully accepted this declaration as true by establishing schools for young persons who have finished their time in the public school, the answer to the above question, as far as the schools for the deaf are concerned, is already given.

Are we to demand that similar schools be established for the benefit of our deaf pupils who have left school, and is attendance at such schools to be made compulsory? This question must be answered in the affirmative as regards large cities where there are institutions for the deaf and where there is a sufficiently large number of deaf who have finished their schooling, and where properly graded schools for adults can be organized. But most

of our deaf come from small cities or from the country, and there are many reasons why, after they have finished schooling, they should not any longer be kept away from their homes. These pupils can be aided in the desired way only by adding to the regular course one or more years. During this additional period the school of instruction and the school of manual labor would have to supplement each other according to the model of the practical Americans, Dutch, etc.

THE DUTY OF THE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF TO FURTHER THE INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION OF THEIR PUPILS AFTER THEY HAVE LEFT SCHOOL.

When the time approaches for pupils to leave the institution, sensible parents will propound to the superintendent the question: "What is to become of our children?" When all medium sized and small institutions for the deaf shall have been abolished, when we shall have nothing but finely graded, central institutions in large cities [this was recently called an ideal aim], when we shall finally have succeeded in killing in the hearts of our pupils all love of home and family, the question is very easily answered; and the answer will be this: The deaf have to embrace that occupation which best enables them to earn a living in a large city, and are sent to the poorhouse if they are not are able to do this.

But, thank God we have not gotten so far yet; and in the true interest of the deaf it is to be desired that this ideal aim may never be reached. In selecting an occupation for our pupils we should take into consideration the local circumstances of their home. They should take up that calling which furnishes them the best guarantee for obtaining thereby an independent position, even if this independence should only be that of a farm laborer, a small mechanic, a sewing girl, or something of the kind. There is absolutely no reason why they should be raised above that level where they would find their place by the side of their normally endowed brothers and sisters, if they were not deaf but possessed of all the senses.

Whatever calling the deaf may select, money is needed if they are to rise to an independent position. Where is the money to come from when the parents of most of our pupils are poor?

The premium promised by the government of Prussia to tradesmen who will take a deaf pupil and teach him their business is of course a step in the right direction. To obtain good masters however for teaching the deaf a trade, it would be necessary when the contract is made with a tradesman for taking a deaf pupil, to give to the tradesman a *positive* promise that the premium will be paid, if he does his full duty to the pupil. Most of the deaf must, owing to the poverty of their parents, be furnished—at least in part—with clothing during the time of their apprenticeship, with tools in case of mechanics, with sewing machines in case of seamstresses, and need an advance of money if they wish to start a business of their own, be it ever so small. The institutions, therefore, need a considerable fund for furthering the industrial education of their pupils.

But what of the mentally backward deaf? For these, as has has already been stated, the world of normally endowed persons is not their natural sphere in after life. For this reason, they should not to such a degree as has so far been done, be bothered with acquiring spoken language. In their case, more stress should, even at school, be paid to manual labor. It would be a true blessing for them if, in connection with the institutions for mentally backward deaf children, places were provided where an opportunity would be offered to exercise their feeble strength to its fullest extent, and where, under kind leadership, they could be truly happy.

No matter whether the deaf are talented or not, they will almost invariably in after life need advice and assistance in serious occasion. I am not able to judge whether they will find this in associations of the deaf. In my district there is no such association, and our institution has so far not had any cause for founding such an association. With the view to cultivate sociability, our deaf are gladly received in young men's and young women's Christian associations. Advice and aid in all serious conditions of life, they find always in our institution.

As the object which the institutions set themselves cannot be fully reached during the short period of schooling, the institutions have to take their share in the spiritual care of the pupils who have left. Their spiritual care is the duty of the church

and not of the school. Whenever in a large city, there are as many deaf as would constitute a small rural parish, it is the duty of the church to furnish a clergyman for them. Just as public school teachers can educate themselves to become teachers of the deaf, so it is to be expected that some of the younger theologians should prepare themselves for pastors of the deaf, and become so well acquainted with the ways and mode of thinking of the deaf, as to be able to take charge of a congregation of normally endowed deaf. In that case, the institutions for the deaf can only lend their aid in preparing pastors for congregations of the deaf. On the other hand, it cannot be expected that clergymen who only occasionally come in contact with the deaf, should acquire the ability to exercise an influence on the heart and mind of the deaf by preaching, which after all is the main point in the Protestant divine service. The preaching must be entrusted to teachers of the deaf who, in conjunction with the local clergymen, take charge of the spiritual care of the normally endowed deaf. Measures to that effect will be taken by the clerical authorities of the Province of Hanover during the year 1904. But what is to become of the poorest of the poor, the mentally weak deaf, whose natural society is not the world of persons endowed with all their senses?

I cannot yet find an answer to this question. If a chain is to be made strong, one link after the other has to be carefully forged and the various links must then be firmly connected with each other by other links. As regards the mentally weak deaf we are just on the point of forging the first link of such a chain, by founding special institutions in which these poor children may be educated to suit their ability. When the first link has been forged, then it will become necessary to add a second link. And not till then will it be time to sufficiently answer the question as to the spiritual care of these children, and base the steps to be taken on actual experience.

DRAMATIZATION AS A FACTOR IN EDUCATION.[1]

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All education is growth in some direction. All growth in man is development through self-activity. In childhood this activity in the early stages may be simply the random, instinctive movements of the babe which are necessary for the proper development of the body, or the response to sense stimuli which leads more directly to the cultivation of intelligence through the exercise of the senses of sight, hearing, taste, touch, and smell.

The normal child passes through well defined stages of activity in many different directions, the transition from one stage to another being so gradual as usually to attract little attention. The instinctive babblings of the babe, which are in reality nature's vocal gymnastics preparatory to speech, become words spoken by the child, at first only in direct imitation of what he hears, and at first scarcely, if at all, comprehended. With many and frequent repetitions in connection with constant observation of the accompanying activity, the meaning becomes more and more apparent to the child. From day to day and from month to month he repeats and appropriates more and more of the language he hears till he finally reaches the stage wherein he uses spontaneous speech as an expression of his own thought, when, with all this complicated and long drawn out process, he is said to have "learned to talk."

The act of walking is preceded by the preparatory stage—the instinctive exercise of the limbs before mentioned. Next the child creeps and shoves himself about for the sake of reaching some desired object; he walks by holding on to the chair which he pushes about, and in this stage he walks much for the pleasure of the activity, and finally walks alone easily. In this stage the activity, having become automatic, is forgotten in the

[1]A paper read before the Deaf Section of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, at Milwaukee, Wis., Dec. 30, 1903.

desire to get to or from a certain place, and the child is said to have "learned to walk."

The description of these two processes is typical of the child's growth in every direction—that is, a gradual passing from the stage of instinctive activity to that of conscious self-expression, the character of the latter being modified or rather controlled by the environment. By all educators play is now recognized as the avenue through which the child becomes acquainted with himself and his environment. Since the impulse for self-expression is instinctive and imperative, and the child can only communicate what he really possesses, until he has learned to dissemble, his free play must mirror pretty faithfully his understanding of the world about him, or at least his interest in it.

In the first period, or what is termed instinctive play,—from birth to two and one-half years,—the child is happy and occupied with his fingers and his toes and what he can do with them. In learning to co-ordinate the different parts of his body he is really finding himself—getting acquainted with his machine—learning how to use his tools.

In the second stage, which comprises the period from two and one-half to five, six, or seven years of age, the child in his plays imitates every activity that comes within his observation. By turns he is papa, big brother, the grocer boy, the milkman, the mail carrier, the family doctor, or the parish priest, and everything he touches is by magic imbued with life and activity. The broomstick becomes a prancing horse, the rocking chair a swift moving engine, the corn-cob a smiling babe. The crudest accessories enable him at this stage to satisfy this instinctive desire to reproduce the life around him. He omits details and clothes the broomstick, the chair, or the corn-cob with the special characteristic that is imaged strongly and which stands to him for the object in its entirety. To the material that he thus appropriates from his immediate environment, that is, the activities of the home and the neighborhood that he sees and himself participates in, he gradually adds what he gathers through conversation, fairy tale, folk lore, and song—material entirely outside of his own experience and which leads him beyond the stage of the actual into that of the imaginary or ideal.

Since good and evil in the world as known to him at this stage are out of perspective at his short range and apt to be transposed in their importance, the image which he creates in seeking to interpret the imaginary world is often more or less of a caricature. In undirected games at this period there may develop a tendency to find little fun in playing "goody-good." In such cases it is apt to be the kicking horse, the crying baby, the saucy boy, the cross mama, or the bad fairy that is mimmicked, the occasional or incidental attribute being seized upon and reproduced as the fundamental characteristic.

Entirely different from these representative plays are what may be called race plays. All children delight in digging, making mud pies, clay dishes, braiding grasses, making houses in the sand and caves in the earth. These may well be termed race plays as they seem to be a universal effort to reproduce the primitive industries and occupations of the race.

The traditional plays or social games that have been handed down from father to son and from age to age involve many of them contests of skill and agility in running, jumping, and throwing as in different ball games, etc. These group games tend to develop the altruistic spirit and have a strong attraction for older children, but differ materially from other plays and games in never being entirely outgrown.

In enumerating thus the characteristics of plays and games, we find they easily fall into the following groups or classes, and all embody, in varying degrees, development through freedom, self-activity, self-expression, and dramatic reproduction.

We have, then, intuitive plays, or those in which the child is busy discovering himself and his powers;

Representative plays, or those in which the child alone or with companions reproduces the life by which he is surrounded, and later imaginary or ideal life;

Racial plays, or those in which the child reproduces the prehistoric experiences of mankind;

And traditional plays, which reflect the social conditions of the eras from which they were handed down.

Among earnest thinkers who struggled with the problem of the little child, Froebel seems to have been the first to recognize

the educative value of play. In formulating his philosophy of the kindergarten, he based his method upon nature's laws as he observed them in operation in the evolution of the little child from a stage of unconscious, involuntary movement to one of conscious, voluntary, self-directed action. Froebel not only recognized the necessity for play in the economy of nature, but also the advantage of its proper direction, and incorporated both as necessary factors in his plan of education, and the progressive kindergartener of today makes free use of organized, directed play in dramatic reproduction of the past and also of the new and vital experiences of our life and times.

The elementary school, reaching out for helpful suggestions, has learned much from the kindergarten and early appropriated its occupations, too often, it is true, without a knowledge of the underlying principles—when it becomes mere busy work. While adopting to some extent the kindergarten thought of freedom and of growth through self-activity, the elementary school has not fully realized, if at all, the real significance of the play or dramatic instinct as an educative power.

In the elementary schools of today much time is spent in reading. Indeed, it is the one thing upon which most time is spent, and yet it is, unfortunately, no uncommon occurrence for a child to read aloud without any proper understanding of the language expressed. It is certainly true that one can recite and even answer questions glibly, using largely the words of the book and seem to know the lesson well, without really having any clear conception of the thought content. But if the child is asked *to be* the thing, or to *show it* in action, any lack of understanding on his part, or any mistaken conception, is at once apparent, for only when a child really knows a thing and his body is under control as a medium of expression, can he show it or act it without hesitancy, or with grace, precision, and spontaneity.

Now, the little child in his free play is the embodiment of grace, freedom of bodily expression, and unity of action between mind and body. With utter self-forgetfulness he puts himself into the expression of the thought or the ideal which possesses him. He thinks it; he talks it; he acts it; and by thus expressing it, the image grows clearer in his own understanding. Were

the child in the elementary school expected to act out the thing and draw it, as well as to talk, read, and write about it, each means of expression would re-inforce the other and the result would be a clearer image, a more definite thought, and a better placing of things in their proper relation.

The continual use of acting or dramatization in connection with nursery rhyme, nature myth, fairy story, and elementary literature would enable the child to enjoy and benefit by this means of expression, when he reaches the period where the historical story prepares the way for more definite and serious study in history. The historical fact must have its proper setting of clothing and paraphernalia. The spirit of the people and of the times must be studied in order to be faithfully represented, and history thus taught would become a truthful picture of people and events instead of a compilation of dates and facts. All literature would mean more to one so trained and the important facts in the history of our own times could not but be better understood and appreciated.

Of unquestionable advantage to the hearing child, dramatization is of even more vital help to the deaf, who are, necessarily, in their early school work, handicapped heavily in speech and language expression. Before entering school the deaf child has, it is true, seen much and has probably reproduced in play the home and the neighborhood activities so far as he could understand them, but lacking language, he lacked that medium of expression and communication which does most to awaken intelligence, and he suffers accordingly in his development. The kindergartener—for the teacher of a little deaf child should always be a kindergartener—by observing this child in his free play, can easily discover how much of his environment he has appropriated, and has a correct basis for judgment as to his present needs. By a careful adaptation of kindergarten work in which games and plays have their appropriate part, the skillful teacher selects and presents that which is of universal and fundamental importance, ignoring the incidental, the frivolous, or bad, or picturing them at their true value, and leads the child onward in his understanding of life, using drawing as a means of illuminating and illustrating every new step, and a test of every review;

translating every activity into speech and language and retranslating all language into activity, till the child reaches a point where he can ask and answer questions intelligently, has something to tell, and can express himself in approximately correct idiomatic language.

He is now said to have been "taught to talk," but incidentally, while learning to talk, he has learned to draw as a means of free expression—a good foundation for later art work; he has learned to understand language through speech-reading, and to spell and write it, and to read it in its written and printed forms; he has learned to understand the natural phenomena of time, change of seasons, climate, the geography of his environment, and the arithmetic and elementary science logically related thereto; he has acquired skill of hand through much practice in construction in different materials such as paper, cardboard, cloth, leather, tin, wood, etc., having used each time that material best adapted to express the thought in mind; he has been taught to co-ordinate his whole body as required to express thought in rhythm, and has participated in the dramatization of nursery rhymes, myths, fairy stories, and elementary literature, both in poetry and prose.

From this stage, books as printed for the use of hearing children can and should be used with deaf children. The habit of testing the understanding of language by the reproduction of the thought in different mediums of expression will continue to be more and more valuable, and the results of such tests should become more and more artistic.

Dramatization, which has hitherto been largely a reproduction in simple form and with few accessories of what had first been presented in story form by the teacher, might well now assume a different character and require more independent work on the part of the child. Instead of taking the story from his teacher's lips, the child should be led gradually to make his own interpretation from the printed page. Even the simplest historical story should have a setting in time and place. This would involve individual thought, much exchange of opinion, and research among books of reference, and a final exercise of judgment as to the detail of the style and character of clothing worn,

furniture used, and the habits and occupations of the people of that time and place.

The construction of the necessary accessories for such a play, if conscientiously done, would furnish educative work for this stage, as it, too, would require constant reference to histories, books of travel, dictionaries, and encyclopedias to discover proper material, color, form, etc., of everything to be made and used.

Dramatization thus used as a vital part of every program from the kindergarten through the high school, would lead, by natural and easy steps, from the spontaneous and unconscious play of the little child to the ability to understand and present, in truthful and artistic action, a historical fact or a gem of literature. Dramatization thus utilized sustains the interest of the class in work for distinct articulation, proper pronunication, and correct phrasing, which is apt to flag when pupils reach a stage where they can "make people understand." It begets a thorough understanding of language and a wide acquaintance with history, literature, geography, and science, cultivates grace and freedom of bodily expression, and, finally, it fosters an interest in books and reading which in itself should commend it to every teacher of the deaf as a desirable feature in a progressive educational plan.

SOME "DON'TS" AND THEIR "WHYS."

THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, in its issues of February, April, and June, of 1903, published a series of statements in regard to the teaching of speech to the deaf and the training of their voices. In accordance with the idea that a statement of that which we ought not to do is more likely to attract attention than one which tells us what we ought to do, they were called "Don'ts." They were made short and concise that they might be merely suggestive, and were given with the hope that they might create a greater interest in the development of speech in work among the deaf, according to the methods used in teaching correct speech to those who hear. It was stated that an explanation would be given to any one who would write to know the "Whys" for these "Don'ts."

The interest shown in the "Don'ts" has been very gratifying, and as a result of this, it has been suggested that the "Whys" should now be presented through the pages of the REVIEW. Letters of inquiry have come from teachers in various parts of this country, and an editor of a foreign periodical has translated the "Don'ts" into his native language, and has expressed a wish that the "Whys" should be published, as he thinks they would benefit teachers of his country as well as those of our own.

> I. Don't allow the condition of the muscles in any part of the body to be such as to prevent good speech and a good tone.

The question at once arises, "What condition of the muscles prevents good speech and a good tone?" Freedom in an agent means its ability to carry out the intention of its being, and whatever prevents this freedom makes it impossible for the agent to show the results which it was by nature intended to produce. A constricted condition of the muscles in any part of the body prevents the free use of those muscles which are so intimately connected that the condition of one affects the others. Anything

which hinders the free use of the hand, for instance, has a greater or less effect in preventing a free, natural use of the muscles which govern the speech and voice apparatus.

II. Don't direct a pupil to use his voice until he has gained control of his tongue in the "first position."

The tongue which has never been used for articulate speech needs careful preliminary training before it is ready to be used in speaking. The so-called "first position" requires that the tongue lie soft and flat in the mouth: that is, without a tightness of the muscles, and, also, that it lie perfectly still. When a child has gained conscious control of his tongue in this position, the muscles of the tongue and of the throat are in a condition to produce a good quality of tone, and not until then should he be directed to use his voice.

III. Don't allow a pupil to feel the vibration of the voice in the throat.

When attention is called to any active agent of the body, we become conscious of that part and the thoughts are centered there. This concentration of the thoughts increases the activity of the agent, and often to an exaggerated degree.

In the correct use of the vocal apparatus, the activity is at the diaphragm, for it is this muscle that, by its contraction, starts the breath out from the lungs. This breath passes between the vocal cords and causes them to vibrate, thus producing voice which is made resonant by the pharynx, the mouth, and the nasal cavities.

The vocal bands are *acted upon* by the breath, but are not in themselves active in producing voice.

The diaphragm is active and the vocal bands passive. This thought cannot be too strongly impressed upon the mind of the teacher, nor its principles too faithfully carried out. In no other way is a good, clear, full, resonant, and, therefore, agreeable tone possible. If we direct the attention of the pupil to the vibration felt at the vocal bands, this part acts mechanically and independently.

A point to be emphasized, and which many teachers appear not to understand, or, at least, their teaching shows no apprecia-

tion of it, is the fact that all the different parts of the vocal apparatus should act *in harmony,* and when we direct the efforts of speaking to the vocal bands, that harmony is destroyed. The result is the strained, unnatural, disagreeable quality that we hear in the voices of many deaf persons.

The best teachers of those who hear have not, for many years, worked directly upon the vocal bands, and we ought not to follow with the deaf—whose speech and voice organs are like those of hearing persons—a course long since discarded.

> IV. Don't try to teach the position for any of the point of tongue consonants until the "second position" has been mastered.

By the "second position" of the tongue is meant the point raised to the upper gum and spread. When this has been accomplished, the work of teaching the consonant elements has been more than half done, for it is the fundamental position for the sound of a large proportion of them. Much time is, therefore, saved and greater accuracy acquired if one is able to control his tongue in the "second position" before the point of tongue consonants are attempted.

> V. Don't allow a pupil to place his hand upon the chin of the teacher nor upon his own chin to feel the vibration of the voice.

The same principle which governs the action of the muscles about the vocal bands and about the nose, holds good in regard to those about the chin. When the muscles in one part of the body—the chin in this case—are constricted, the muscles in the immediate vicinity are more or less tightened.

A constricted condition of the muscles in portions remote from the vocal bands, in the hands or feet for instance, is also shown in the voice.

> VI. Don't blow or puff out breath for final p.

Why should we not do this? Simply because it is not possible to give that element correctly if such directions are followed. The recoil which alone gives the right finish to the elements cannot result.

When it is necessary to use a device to attract the attention

of a *very* young deaf child or of a hearing child of feeble intellect, the plan of puffing out the breath or of blowing a piece of paper or a feather may be used as an expedient, because the motion of the lips and the feeling of the breath upon the hand interests the little one. It is better, however, not to associate this with the letter p, but later to so modify the action as to give the right recoil.

VII. Don't call the attention of the pupil to the vibration of the voice in the lips while giving the sound of m.

It is harmful to attract special attention to any active agent, because it interferes with the natural action of that agent. When one is directed to think of the vibration of the voice in the lips while giving the sound of m, he is made conscious of them and there is a pressure which prevents the perfect flow of tone through the nasal passages.

VIII. Don't allow the slightest pressure of the lips when giving the sound of m.

The voice finds an exit through the nasal passages in giving the sound of m and depends for its good quality upon the resonance given it by the vibrations in the nasal cavities. If the lips are pressed, there is an undue tightening of the muscles not only of the lips, but, also, more or less, of the nares, and this prevents the free flow of tone which is necessary to perfect resonance.

IX. Don't attract the attention of the pupil to the nose for the vibration of the voice in giving the sounds of m, n, and ng.

What has been said of not allowing pressure of the lips when giving the sound of m, is true, also, in regard to not calling the attention of the pupil to the voice as felt in the nose. If attention is attracted to any special part of the vocal or speech apparatus, the thoughts become centered upon that part and there is a tendency to constrict the muscles and prevent the greatest freedom. If the thoughts are not upon the nose, the nasal passages are left in a condition to allow a free flow of the tone.

X. Don't fail to distinguish between a true and a false nasal vibration.

When the sounds of the three nasal elements, m, n, and ng, are given, the voice passes through the nose and is made more or less clear and resonant, according to the condition of the nasal cavities. A diseased state of the membrane or the deflection of the septum or a constriction of the muscles, all interfere with the flow of tone and the nasal resonance. A sound will come, but it will be what it is called a "false nasal vibration."

A healthy condition of the nares and a free, open passage will allow "a true nasal vibration."

XI. Don't let a pupil feel the vibration of the voice in the chin nor upon the teeth in giving the sound of z or the vocalized th.

When a pupil is directed to feel the vibration of the voice in the chin or upon the teeth or, as before stated, upon the vocal bands, an unnatural effort is made, which results in a poor quality of tone and an exaggeration of the element. The undue effort hinders the free vibration of the voice. If teachers would give to their pupils the idea, in producing the vowel sounds and all the consonants except the few "shut consonants," that the lips and tongue take certain positions and the stream of voice passes over them, there would be a much better quality of tone and greater ease in giving the element.

XII. Don't require too much voice in giving the sound of z or of vocalized th.

The positions for the vocalized consonants b, d, g, v, z, zh, th, and j are the same as for the non-vocal consonants p, t, k, f, th, s, sh, and ch; the addition of voice in the former group constituting the only difference between these elements.

The amount of voice necessary to make this difference is very slight, as one can readily know by listening to the speech of those whose utterances may be taken as a standard. Misconceptions of the required amount of voice are undoubtedly due to drill upon these as separate elements, and not in their relation to each other and to the vowels.

XIII. Don't neglect the recoil in the consonants.

In the formation of the elements of speech, two parts of the speech apparatus, which, for convenience, we call the active and

the passive agents, are brought together, sometimes to shut off entirely the passage of the breath or of the voice, and sometimes to do this in part.

The way in which these agents are separated and return to the position from which they started, gives to the elements a clear, cleanly cut sound, a finish which can be obtained in no other way.

XIV. Appeals to a sense of rhythm can be made in the earliest stages of speech-teaching.

Beginning with hand clapping in concert, guided by the teacher, or by dashes upon the blackboard, with rhythmic movements of feet, arms, or head one may lead the pupils on to an appreciation of the relation of vowels, syllables, and words to one another.

Stringed musical instruments serve a useful purpose in this connection. Allowing the pupils to rest their hands upon them, the teacher can secure a commendable degree of fluency and naturalness in the use of speech.

Sarah Jordan Monro,
Special Teacher of Speech and Voice-training
in the Horace Mann School for the Deaf,
Boston, Mass.

TABLE I.—SPEECH-TEACHING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1893–1903.
Statistics compiled from the American Annals of the Deaf.

Schools for the Deaf in THE UNITED STATES arranged alphabetically according to location.	Total Number of Pupils Taught Speech.											Number of Pupils Taught Wholly or Chiefly by the Oral Method[1].										
	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903
Ala. Talladega School	24	32	52	70	60	84	60	48	65	52	65	12	16	36	30	60	12	12	12	65	52	52
Ark. Little Rock School	20	37	50	46	48	42	—	56	58	46	46	10	18	26	16	48	37	—	49	44	46	—
Cal. Berkeley School	78	83	90	110	90	85	100	100	100	101	107	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	4	9
" Los Angeles School	....	...	....	....	....	—	13	13	16	16	17	....	....	....	....	....	—	13	13	16	16	17
" Oakland, 11th and Jefferson School	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	7	8	8	8	....	....	....	....	...	...	4	7	8	8	8
" " Telegraph Ave. School	....	....	—	—	8	—	6	8	8	12	20	....	....	....	—	3	—	—	5	5	4	8
" San Francisco School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	13	19	29	....	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	13	19	29
Col. Colorado Springs School	59	25	38	35	44	38	44	59	78	68	77	16	20	17	18	29	33	44	59	78	67	77
Conn. Hartford School	95	107	109	99	116	118	124	126	107	127	131	—	—	—	—	10	12	8	—	35	49	61
" Mystic School	19	25	30	24	28	34	33	35	37	30	24	19	25	30	24	28	34	33	33	35	30	24
D. C. Washington, Gallaudet College	57	54	62	73	70	73	74	69	65	49	55	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	—
" " Kendall School	42	47	43	39	38	37	34	40	39	44	46	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Fla. St. Augustine School	37	23	36	28	37	30	15	15	34	54	54	10	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	25
Ga. Cave Spring School	20	34	31	26	36	44	34	34	63	70	80	—	10	25	—	32	44	34	34	63	—	80
Ill. Aurora School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4
" Chicago Schools[2]	46	62	61	93	108	142	164	160	171	171	159	1	—	—	29	60	99	121	116	131	131	157
" " South May St. School	111	95	98	103	110	61	20	46	50	49	51	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—
" " Yale Ave. School	36	36	31	24	23	23	24	28	32	32	39	36	35	25	24	23	23	24	28	32	32	24
" Dundee School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6
" Jacksonville School	180	193	193	200	275	418	525	525	536	484	484	67	57	57	106	186	243	285	285	364	355	385
" Rockford School	...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5
" Rock Island School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	7	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	...	6	7	8
" Streator School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	8	....	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	8	....	5
Ind. Indianapolis School	105	104	57	93	102	108	148	146	153	151	165	13	52	57	86	102	108	104	98	104	103	165
Iowa. Council Bluffs School	46	64	66	66	94	55	70	66	95	110	120	24	24	33	33	38	55	70	66	95	100	120

Kan.	Olathe School	58	99	116	71	100	40	61	86	68	86	104	—	20	23	20	22	63	33	40	50	73	68
Ky.	Danville School	117	150	153	145	163	169	152	173	141	139	136	52	15	53	123	87	145	110	111	130	139	133
La.	Baton Rouge School	15	20	19	21	—	23	35	46	57	56	54	—	16	19	—	—	23	35	—	57	56	—
"	Chinchuba School	25	31	27	23	28	28	6	19	19	....	12	—	—	—	—	3	3	—	—	19	....	—
Me.	Portland School	40	55	64	59	63	66	70	84	82	87	88	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Md.	Baltimore, Hollins St. School	26	27	25	25	26	26	....	....	....	....	...	26	27	25	25	26	26	....	....	....	....	....
"	" McCulloh St. Sch.	....	....	....	....	...	....	....	27	27	....	24	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	27	27	....	—
"	" W. Saratoga St. School	—	7	17	23	17	20	28	15	20	15	15	—	—	—	11	9	10	15	15	—	15	15
"	Frederick City School	60	49	50	53	56	62	62	72	60	60	62	22	28	32	23	23	28	38	47	48	58	52
Mass.	Beverly School	15	17	16	14	2	19	14	14	20	—	20	—	—	1	1	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
"	Boston, Jamaica Plain School	....	....	....	....	....	...	13	29	38	39	43	....	....	....	....	....	....	13	29	36	39	43
"	" Newbury Street School	99	106	115	110	109	116	119	124	127	125	132	99	106	115	110	109	116	114	124	127	125	132
"	Northampton School	131	145	145	152	158	156	150	150	145	150	141	131	145	145	152	158	156	150	150	145	150	141
"	W. Medford School	9	4	9	8	10	10	9	10	11	13	9	9	4	9	8	10	10	9	10	11	13	9
Mich.	Bay City School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	6	8	...	.. .	....	...	....	....	....	....	5	5	8
"	Calumet School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	9	....	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	9
"	Detroit School	....	....	10	13	10	9	9	30	36	39	44	....	....	10	6	10	8	8	30	36	39	44
"	Flint School	94	111	126	157	170	196	220	242	286	223	265	26	37	59	86	103	111	132	140	191	155	197
"	Grand Rapids School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	19	28	23	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	15	19	28	23
"	Jackson School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6
"	Menominee School	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	7	5	6	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	7	4	6	5
"	Muskegon School	...	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	8	8	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	7	7	8
"	North Detroit School	42	40	34	34	37	41	36	27	26	33	33	42	40	34	34	37	—	36	27	26	26	22
"	Saginaw School	...	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	5	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	..	....	3	3	4
Minn.	Faribault School	99	115	107	92	90	90	85	68	59	62	83	37	10	18	19	52	56	63	68	59	62	191
Miss.	Jackson School	20	21	17	28	—	—	—	36	65	72	50	8	7	8	19	—	—	—	36	40	26	36
Mo.	Fulton School	68	61	66	24	85	66	76	65	64	81	90	10	5	15	24	52	66	76	65	64	81	90
"	St. Louis, Cass Ave. School	37	37	20	12	20	12	20	15	10	20	20	—	3	—	—	7	5	10	5	4	5	20
"	" Henrietta St. School	23	29	27	33	33	31	32	30	30	37	44	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	—
"	" So. St. Louis Sch.	7	7	10	12	8	8	12	12	12	15	18	I	2	—	2	4	4	4	4	5	4	9
Mont.	Boulder School	....	1	—	3	6	7	—	16	21	20	21	....	—	—	—	—	7	—	11	17	17	18
Neb.	Omaha School	78	77	89	85	84	96	87	87	79	90	101	44	31	35	32	84	—	61	63	56	7	72
N. J.	Trenton School	70	63	65	76	88	82	135	51	60	135	120	32	40	31	45	82	64	57	64	60	37	61

[1] The words "or chiefly" were added to this description in 1896 and have since been used.

[2] Comprising in 1903 twelve Public Day Schools under one Supervising Principal.

TABLE I—CONTINUED.—SPEECH-TEACHING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1893–1903.
Statistics compiled from the American Annals of the Deaf.

Schools for the Deaf in THE UNITED STATES arranged alphabetically according to location.	Total Number of Pupils TAUGHT SPEECH.											Number of Pupils Taught Wholly or Chiefly by the ORAL METHOD.										
	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903
N. M. Santa Fe School	—	10	—	9	—	—	—	—	....	....	....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	....	....	....
N. Y. Albany School	14	16	19	15	17	18	24	24	33	33	....	14	16	19	14	17	18	22	22	32	32	....
" Buffalo School	120	122	120	125	123	150	150	155	154	150	152	55	60	55	—	10	9	7	8	4	6	9
" Fordham School[1]	297	302	330	348	344	346	371	365	375	376	388	280	300	330	168	334	330	371	365	375	376	388
" Malone School	51	54	65	62	81	56	69	80	56	56	62	23	20	—	8	11	6	13	—	—	29	39
" N. Y. Lexington Ave. School	194	197	185	187	188	193	201	203	214	215	212	194	197	185	187	188	193	201	203	214	215	212
" " Mt. Morris Park School	....	14	15	16	19	19	19	23	19	17	16	....	14	15	16	19	19	19	23	19	17	16
" " St. Nicholas Ave. School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	14	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	—	3
" " Wash't'n H'ts. (N. Y. Inst)	334	372	370	386	390	403	415	417	420	414	423	15	37	49	70	101	105	183	221	251	47	46
" " West 187th St. School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	7	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	7
" Rochester School	157	154	154	154	166	173	169	166	180	178	176	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Rome School	90	74	54	40	51	60	60	48	42	53	134	—	19	22	24	14	—	—	—	—	—	—
N. C. Morganton School	....	...	50	65	59	66	66	90	101	114	118	....	....	50	60	59	66	66	90	101	114	118
" Raleigh School	20	27	9	13	15	12	15	12	12	—	35	18	27	9	—	15	12	12	12	12	—	35
N. D. Devil's Lake School	13	10	22	35	31	31	33	39	26	26	36	2	—	—	4	3	6	7	7	7	7	17
Ohio. Ashtabula School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6
" Canton School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	8
" Cin'nati, W. 6th St. (Oral) Sch.	20	25	30	31	27	32	31	24	28	27	27	20	25	30	31	27	32	31	24	27	27	27
" " " (Manual) Sch.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " East Sixth St. Sch.	12	12	10	10	7	10	10	14	14	13	19	5	3	2	3	5	3	8	13	13	11	15
" Cleveland School	—	12	33	28	22	40	54	61	51	47	42	—	—	11	18	17	37	48	61	51	44	42
" Columbus School (O. Inst.)	117	98	92	192	148	192	202	239	257	267	270	23	29	22	105	114	162	189	226	245	267	255
" " S. Wilson Ave. School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
" Dayton School	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	4	6	10	6	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	4	6	10	6
" Elyria School	....	....	....	....	....	7	6	8	6	7	6	....	....	....	....	....	7	6	8	6	7	6
Okla. Guthrie School	....	....	....	....	....	—	4	5	—	—	2	....	....	....	....	....	—	4	—	—	—	—

Ore. Salem School	17	17	15	—	—	—	25	33	34	28	28	—	—	—	—	—	—	19	17	20	22	22
Pa. Edgewood Park School	64	46	73	41	43	69	87	95	128	148	162	14	27	30	41	43	—	—	95	128	—	—
" Phila., Belmont Ave. School	29	37	43	48	48	50	60	60	62	61	62	29	37	43	43	48	50	60	60	62	61	62
" " Mt. Airy School	262	304	350	428	414	440	453	470	470	471	473	262	304	350	388	414	440	453	470	470	471	473
" Scranton School	48	56	59	69	74	80	79	73	80	81	84	48	56	59	69	74	80	79	73	80	81	84
R. I. Providence School	53	51	60	59	58	58	61	63	65	62	65	53	51	60	59	58	58	61	63	65	62	62
S. C. Cedar Spring School	26	29	27	30	32	34	35	34	38	42	37	9	16	13	27	32	34	35	34	38	42	37
S. D. Sioux Falls School	12	16	30	30	11	22	—	—	9	9	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tenn. Knoxville School	137	130	125	100	56	73	78	95	95	65	65	15	14	20	47	44	29	30	35	35	65	65
Tex. Austin School (for colored)	8	3	3	1	1	—	3	3	1	1	—	5	2	2	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Austin School (for whites)	39	33	40	40	74	74	92	163	197	233	232	39	33	40	40	64	64	92	163	197	238	232
Utah. Ogden School	35	39	12	29	40	43	44	40	56	58	46	10	6	3	—	13	24	13	—	8	41	33
Va. Staunton School	27	26	32	—	16	18	28	28	30	31	42	—	—	—	—	13	13	16	12	10	12	26
Wash. Vancouver School	21	18	40	—	35	—	38	36	32	15	29	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
W. V. Romney School	14	14	23	23	18	19	19	22	22	....	25	14	4	13	13	18	—	19	22	22	....	25
Wis. Appleton School	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	7	6	6	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	7	6	6	8
" Ashland School	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	8	8	9	9	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	8	8	9	9
" Black River Falls School	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	4	4	9	10	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	4	4	9	10
" Delavan School	57	81	81	87	100	107	88	121	123	106	119	57	76	81	87	100	107	88	121	123	106	112
" Eau Claire School	....	....	5	5	5	7	11	12	16	18	21	....	....	5	5	5	7	11	12	16	18	21
" Fond du Lac School	....	....	5	6	6	6	6	5	9	11	9	....	....	5	6	6	6	6	5	9	1	9
" Green Bay School	....	....	....	....	....	....	10	8	7	4	7	....	....	....	....	....	....	8	7	5	3	7
" La Crosse School	6	8	7	8	—	—	10	9	9	8	5	6	8	7	8	—	—	10	9	9	8	5
" Marinette School	....	....	4	5	6	6	7	7	7	8	9	....	....	4	5	6	5	7	7	6	8	9
" Milwaukee School	42	50	52	49	48	50	55	55	54	57	68	42	50	52	49	48	50	55	55	54	57	68
" Neillsville School	....	....	....	....	....	....	7	9	9	9	12	....	....	....	....	....	....	7	9	9	9	12
" Oshkosh School	....	....	10	9	12	10	9	8	5	4	7	....	....	10	9	12	10	9	8	5	4	7
" Racine School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	9	9	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6	9
" Rhinelander School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	5	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5	5
" St. Francis School	21	20	11	11	23	45	42	46	45	38	44	—	—	—	1	5	45	40	—	40	34	41
" Sheboygan School	....	5	7	7	6	6	4	6	7	7	9	....	4	7	7	6	6	4	6	7	7	9
" Sparta School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	11	8	7	7	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	11	8	7	7
" Wausau School	8	8	7	10	10	8	7	7	6	5	8	8	8	7	10	10	8	7	7	6	5	8
" West Superior School	....	....	....	....	....	....	10	11	11	12	11	....	....	....	....	....	....	10	11	11	12	11

[1] In the statistics of the Fordham School the pupils of its Westchester and Brooklyn branches are included.

TABLE II.—SPEECH-TEACHING IN CANADIAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, 1893-1903.
Statistics compiled from the American Annals of the Deaf.

Schools for the Deaf in CANADA arranged alphabetically according to location.	Total Number of Pupils Taught Speech.											Number of Pupils Taught Wholly or Chiefly by the Oral Method.										
	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901	1902	1903
Man. Winnipeg School	6	6	11	11	12	16	15	12	14	15	10	—	—	3	8	7	9	10	12	14	12	—
N. B. St. John School	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	23	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	14
N. S. Halifax School	30	31	31	52	79	60	51	64	64	64	67	6	6	6	13	15	60	49	42	63	63	67
Ont. Belleville School	48	45	49	47	54	57	60	60	60	60	58	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
P. Q. Montreal :																						
" " St. Denis St. School	93	109	107	96	101	100	112	116	104	112	106	93	99	102	93	98	93	105	108	104	111	100
" " Mile End School	60	39	31	41	43	60	71	102	60	60	69	—	39	31	41	43	60	66	60	60	60	69
" " Notre Dame de Grace Sch.	—	24	33	24	37	30	37	45	39	46	48	8	11	12	17	14	17	30	20	28	30	31

MEASUREMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE HEARING POWER IN THE DEAF.[1]

Dr. Marage proposes the question "whether science gives us the right to practice acoustic exercises with the deaf." In order to be able to reply to this question, he has undertaken a series of experiments in the Institute of Bourg-la-Reine. Twenty-four girls were selected from the various classes. In regard to the pedagogical side of the question they had every guarantee which could be desired, as Dr. Marage was assisted by Prof. M. Dupont of the National Institute of Paris. It was established in the beginning that the experiment should last five weeks, and then be interrupted for three months, in such a way as to be able to determine the stability of the results obtained; it would then be renewed for a period of eight days.

Dr. Marage describes particularly the experiments made, in graphical tables, which give, day by day, the conditions of the organs of hearing in the twenty-five patients. Dr. Marage observes that the ordinary means for verifying the power of hearing in the deaf is insufficient for the needs. He attributes to this defect the variety of conclusions arrived at by the various experimenters. The classification made until now, he says, between the totally deaf and those who give signs of hearing the voice, the whistle, drum, and the vowels shouted near the ear, is not sufficient. An instrument is needed to measure rapidly and exactly the power of hearing.

This instrument Dr. Marage has constructed himself, calling it the "sirène." This instrument has obtained already the Barbier prize at the Institute of France and at the Faculty of Medicine of Paris.

The patient is placed in front of the apparatus, with his eyes closed and one of his ears stopped up; the distance between the

[1]Mesure et Developpement de L'audition chez les Sourds-muets, par le Dr. R. Marage; Paris, Masson et C., Editeurs. Review by G. Ferreri, Palermo, Sicily.

patient and instrument is always the same, Om. 50; the intensity of the sound of the sirène is increased by increasing the pressure of air; this pressure is measured by means of a metallic manometer graduated to mm. of water. The sound produced under the pressure of a mm. is perceived perfectly by a normal ear.

For developing the hearing in the deaf, one must choose between three species of vibrations which the normal ear is capable of receiving: *noises, music, speech.* Dr. Marage observes with right, that the experimenter should aim at the last, which alone constitutes the real object of acoustic exercises for the deaf. It does happen many times that a deaf person can perceive noises or music, but this does not prove that he therefore can perceive natural speech.

Dr. Marage describes the beginning of the treatment as follows:

"As the natural voice is too complicated, and its use is too fatiguing, we have made use of a sirène which reproduces the fundamental vibrations of the vowels ou, o, a, è, i; the instrument which permits the measurement of the power of hearing will serve also for the treatment; the vibrations which it gives may have whatever tone is desired, (it is enough to turn the sirène more or less quickly), and whatever intensity is desired (it is enough to increase the pressure of air which passes through the apparatus). The vibrating air is made to reach a membrane of thin caoutchouc not stretched; this membrane transmits all the vibrations, without introducing or suppressing any harmonic; a tube of thick caoutchouc then transmits the vibrations to the tympanum; one end of the tube of caoutchouc penetrates the exterior channel of hearing, the other end is closed by the membrane which vibrates under the influence of the sirène; one has therefore an apparatus of massage which reproduces on the tympanum, with a graduated intensity, the fundamental vibrations of speech; one can take at will as the source, the vibrations of one of the vowel sounds, ou, o, a, è, i, and experiment with the action of each of these vibrations on the ear.

"The length of a massage is at least five minutes; the pressure must not surpass 20 mm.; one treatment is made every day. The number of massages differs with each patient; generally all possible improvement is obtained in six weeks and the curve ceases to rise.

"That which is very interesting to note is that the vibrations are always agreeable to the ear; during the experiments not only

no child complained of them, but it seemed really to be a treat for him to come to the acoustic exercises; which certainly has not always been the case when one has employed the method of *Diapasons* and *Resonnateurs.*"

The course of treatment carried out and the results obtained by Dr. Marage are described in graphical tables where is traced each time accurately the line indicating the acoustic conditions of the ear with the changes obtained.

Dr. Marage at the end of his work comes to the following conclusions:

1. The "sirène acoumétre" permits a rapid and exact measurement of the power of hearing in the deaf; the degree of hearing is represented graphically.

2. The vibrations of this apparatus transmitted to the ear by means of a tube furnished with a vibrating membrane, develop the power of hearing in the totally deaf. Generally a treatment of five minutes a day for each ear during a period of six weeks is sufficient.

3. These vibrations are not only neither painful nor fatiguing, but they afford real pleasure to the deaf who hear them.

4. The intensity of the vibrations must be weak, and one can develop perfectly the hearing of sounds which had not been heard before.

5. The hearing is measured every week, and one can thus determine the moment when the deaf can practice the acoustic exercises with the natural voice successfully. One must not begin these exercises until the hearing curve is found in the third zone of deafness, so that the teacher can make himself heard when speaking at a distance of Om. 50 to 1 metre without forcing the voice.

6. It is not advantageous in institutions to practice the acoustic exercises with children under eleven years of age. One might, no doubt, succeed in developing their hearing power by means of the sirène, but afterwards one would experience great difficulties in the exercises for the natural voice. It is therefore better to wait until the intelligence and instruction of the pupil have been sufficiently developed.

EDWARD WILLIAM EMERY TOMPSON.

SARAH FULLER, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS.

Mr. Edward William Emery Tompson, President of the Boston Parents' Education Association for Deaf Children, and a well known resident of Brookline, Mass., for many years, died suddenly of pneumonia, after a short illness, on February 1, 1904. He was born in Sanford, Maine, March 11, 1848, and when quite young moved with his parents to Boston, Mass. He was educated at Harvard, and was graduated from the Law School in the class of 1870. Although a lawyer by profession, he never actively practiced as his time was largely taken up with his private business. For several years he served the town of Brookline as a member of the Tree Planting Committee. He was also treasurer, for four years, of the Riverdale Casino, being one of the original members, and always taking an active interest in its welfare. His associates in the Casino say of him, "E. W. E. Tompson, we respected, honored, and loved for his sterling character, strong integrity, and unimpeachable manliness, which evinced those attributes found only in God's best men."

He was a member of the Joseph Warren Commandery of Knights Templar of Roxbury, and from the inception of the Boston Parents' Education Association for Deaf Children until his death was its President. In his first report of the work of this organization, he speaks of it as "formed to unite the parents of deaf children residing in Boston and vicinity for concerted action, and to interest others in matters relating to the education of the deaf." He also adds, "The Association will make a special study of the needs of schools for the deaf, and will endeavor to secure to them the things necessary to the greatest efficiency in their work. It will bring together parents and teachers having a common interest in the pupils, and by establishing a better understanding between them, it will promote harmony and good will and advance the cause of the education of the deaf."

That Mr. Tompson was ready and glad to do his full share of the work outlined for this Association was shown by his generous gift of money toward defraying the cost of a republication of a part of Vox Oculis Subjecta. In his preface to this, Mr. Tompson writes, "The Dissertation contains so much of real value that it has been deemed worthy of rescue from oblivion; although written more than one hundred years ago, it is just as useful now as then, and it is again sent forth on its mission. This little pamphlet containing the substance of Mr. Green's essay has been prepared especially for circulation among parents of deaf children, and his thoughts alone are presented."

Mr. Tompson was a liberal contributor to the sum that procured a tablet to the memory of Francis Green—"The first in this country to urge the education of the deaf."

The last publication, "An Offering in Behalf of the Deaf," was the gift of Mr. Tompson and one other parent, to the Association. An acknowledgment of a copy of this little pamphlet contains the following: "There is no more touching or romantic story in all history than that of what has been done in the last century for the deaf and dumb. It would be better to blot out a dozen Waterloos than to blot it out of human history."

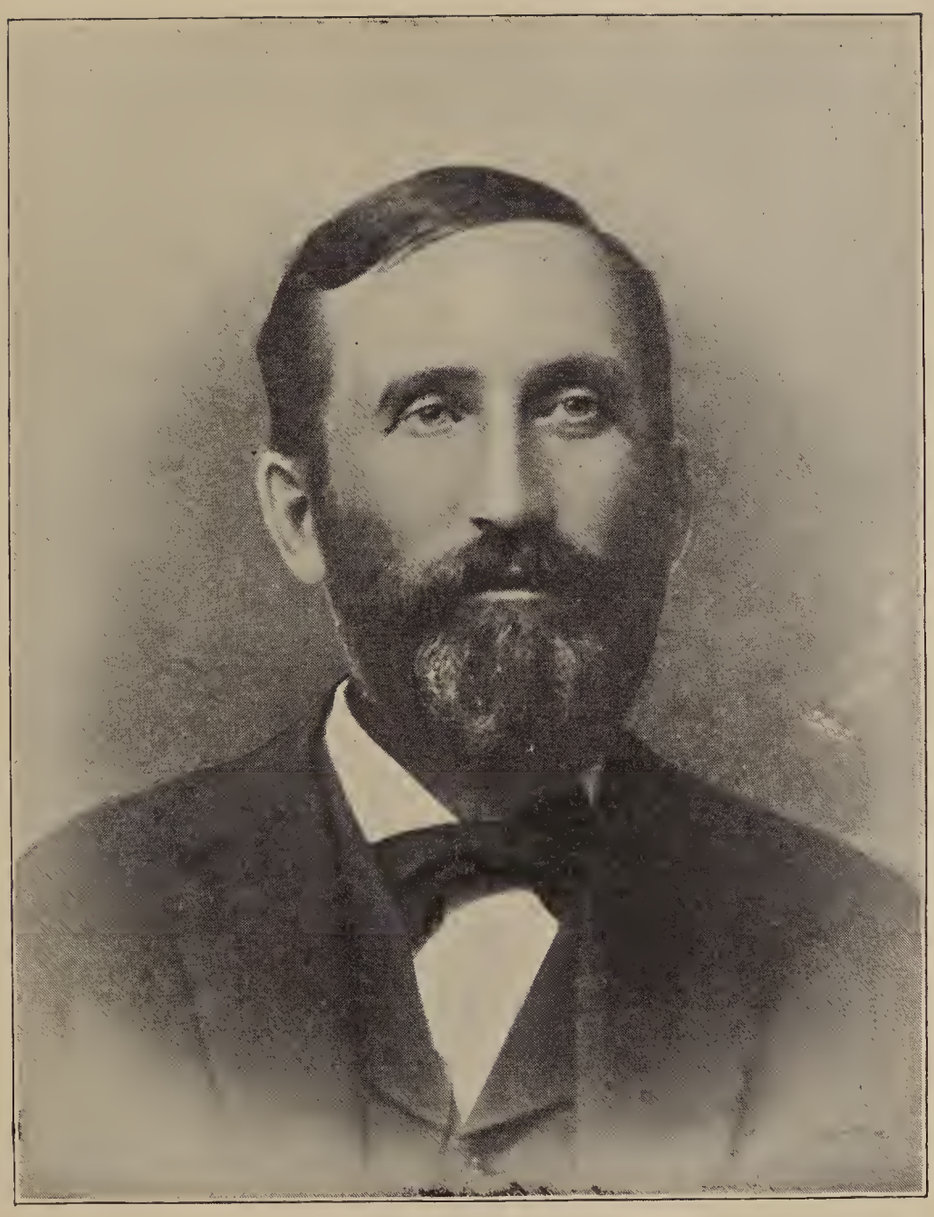
Wisdom and untiring devotion characterized Mr. Tompson's work as President of the Association, and it will long be gratefully remembered by parents of deaf children.

JAMES SIMPSON: A LIFE SKETCH.

PHILIP L. AXLING, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON, AND FRANK R. WRIGHT, SIOUX FALLS, SOUTH DAKOTA.

In the evening of the sixteenth of November, 1903, James Simpson, late Superintendent of the South Dakota School for the Deaf, departed this life. Dissolution took place at the residence of his brother-in-law, J. T. Gilbert, in Sioux Falls, South Dakota. The immediate cause of death was enlargement of the liver, from which he had been suffering for several months and which baffled the efforts of the most skilled physicians to check. The funeral on the nineteenth following was attended by a very large concourse of sorrowing friends, and most of the prominent people of Sioux Falls were present. The entire population of the school over which the deceased had long presided was also present. The services were held at the house where Mr. Simpson died, Rev. J. N. Hutchinson, of the Presbyterian Church, and an intimate friend of the family, officiating. After the services at the house the members of the Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks, of which organization the deceased was an honored member, took charge and the services at the grave were under their direction. Floral offerings were numerous, the casket being almost buried under the mass of beautiful flowers, among which were many from former pupils who were unable to attend. Interment was had in Mount Pleasant Cemetery, the final resting place being in plain view of the school which had been the scene of Mr. Simpson's long and faithful services. "The exercises of the afternoon," said the Sioux Falls Daily Press, in recording the funeral, "were beautiful and impressive. and eloquently testified to the love and esteem freely accorded Prof. Simpson by the many who were participants in his friendship and good will."

In the demise of James Simpson the cause of the education of the deaf lost one of its staunchest supporters and the state of South Dakota a man whose citizenship and patriotism were be-



JAMES SIMPSON.

yond assail. He numbered his friends by the legion. His personality was magnetic. Every one who had the good fortune to know him intimately found in him a staunch friend, kind of heart and ever ready to lend a helping hand in any case of necessity however small. In business affairs he possessed sound judgment. His advice was frequently sought by acquaintances in business and public life. In his transactions he was straightforward and reliable. In his long administration of the South Dakota School for the Deaf he never permitted the expenditures to exceed the appropriations, and never had a deficiency. In all business affairs of a private nature he was careful and far-seeing, and made judicious investments of his earnings from time to time.

In his whole life James Simpson reflected the sturdy Scotch stock from which he was descended. His parents were William Simpson and Harriet Markham, married in Steuben County, New York, in November, 1832. To this union there were born six children, Armenia, Thomas, William, Mary Jane, Delos, and James. The family left New York state and settled in Milford, Livingtone County, Michigan. It was in Milford Township that James Simpson was born, on January 21, 1855. In the family there were three children who were deaf more or less, though in none of them was it congenital. From the best accounts it appears that James became deaf gradually when very young—two years of age or thereabouts. The exact cause of his deafness is not clear, but a physician of that period attributed it to a throat trouble, claiming it was inherited from the mother. James was not considered totally deaf before he was ten years of age. By that time he had mastered the art of reading lips with ease and was a good speaker. It was through the tireless work of his mother that he retained so good a command of speech and was so expert in reading lips. While still young his mother died, but his elder sister kept up the work and also assisted him in learning to read and write. When he had attained the age of fourteen, he was like any hearing boy of the same age, and was always able to hold his own in intercourse with hearing people. Both his parents were now dead, and his brother William acted in the capacity of guardian to James and his deaf brother Delos.

James, when fourteen years old, was sent to the school for the deaf at Flint, Michigan, where Delos had been some years and was about to enter Gallaudet College.

Mr. Simpson's boyhood life was cast along hard lines. He was dependent upon his elder brother for support. This brother having had his share of tribulation, saw no reason why the lad should not work hard for his board and clothes. Accordingly he assigned a man's work to him each day and the boy had to rise before sun-up, along with the other men on the farm, and work hard until late at night. William held to the belief that such training was good for the lad, and it appears such was really the case, for it made him industrious and thoroughly self-reliant. These qualities clung to him through life and it was due to them, coupled with an indomitable will, that Mr. Simpson was so successful in his undertakings. Many a time he met apparently unsurmountable obstacles—yet surmounted them. In the school at Flint, he came under the instruction of Prof. Thomas L. Brown. Always a hard student he made remarkably rapid progress, especially during the last three of the four terms he spent at Flint. At the end of this time he transferred his residence to a small town in New York state, with an uncle, and in the fall he entered the Fanwood School in New York City. This was about the year 1873, when Dr. Isaac Lewis Peet was principal. He arrived in New York City with fourteen cents in his pocket and knew not a soul there. He made his way to the Fanwood School and applied for admission. Dr. Peet sized up his young caller, asked a few questions, and decided he might enter. He was assigned to one of the classes, but it was soon clear he was too far advanced in his studies for that class, so he was transferred to the high class. Most of the students in this class had spent years of hard work in the school to reach their present grade, and naturally they resented the idea of permitting "a western farm boy" to come up to their level without a course of previous study in the institution. They combined to make life a torment for the Flint boy, but to no avail, for James from sheer force of character was soon among the most popular students in the school.

Prof. Oliver D. Cooke was the instructor of the high class

at Fanwood during the time Mr. Simpson was there. Prof. Cooke had been an officer in the Confederate army, and was a stern disciplinarian and a thorough instructor. He disapproved of signs and forbade their use in the school-room. All conversation was by spelling, and had to be in complete sentences. This method proved valuable in fixing in the student's mind a correct use of the English language. The subject of this sketch always said there was no better instructor of the deaf than Prof. Cooke, and he felt it a distinct honor to have been under his tutorship. As before stated Mr. Simpson's instructor at the Flint school was Prof. Thomas L. Brown. As soon as he became a member of Prof. Cooke's class he noticed a striking similarity in the methods of the two gentlemen. Remarking upon this to Prof. Cooke one day, the latter told him that Prof. Brown had been a pupil of his at Hartford. This of course accounted for the similarity observed in educational methods, and it also influenced Mr. Simpson to such an extent that his methods in the school-room at Council Bluffs, Iowa, and at Sioux Falls, South Dakota, were intensively those of Prof. Cooke and Prof. Brown, carrying thus into the third generation their successful methods. In all his work the motto of Mr. Simpson was: "Do it intelligently and thoroughly." He carried this so far that not infrequently pupils entering his class if inclined to indolence soon found it unprofitable, not to say uncomfortable, to disregard his instructions or admonitions.

After spending three years at the Fanwood school, Mr. Simpson graduated with the highest honors, being valedictorian of his class, having attained this honor in competition with some thirty high class students who had each spent many years more in school than he. The faculty, in presenting him his diploma, made special mention of his achievements and commended him as an example for others to pattern after. The courses pursued in the high class of the New York institution were as advanced as and almost identical with the courses at the national college for the deaf at that period. This fact served to make Mr. Simpson forego a scholarship in the college, which some of his friends urged him to take. Among his classmates at Fanwood were some of the best known of the deaf of today.

After his graduation at Fanwood, Mr. Simpson went to Attica, New York, where he worked in the jewelry store of a deaf man named George Taylor. Before long he was back in Michigan and went to work on the farm of a cousin, Alexander Simpson. His vacations had always been spent in the country, and he made money enough to pay his own way through school, meeting thus all expenses for travelling, clothing, incidentals, etc. With his diploma laid away and himself following the plow, the subject of this sketch had no special object in life—yet his ambitions were lofty and he was growing weary of the humdrum of farm life. He had two brothers, William and Delos, as stated. The former was quite hard of hearing, but had an honorable record as a soldier in the Civil War. A peculiar incident is mentioned in connection with William's entrance to the army. He applied for enlistment in a Michigan regiment, but his infirmity being known, he failed to pass. Determined to get into the army in any event, he went to New York and by keeping his eyes on the alert, he was able to answer all questions and successfully passed every test. He spent something like three years in the army. During much of that time he was a sharpshooter, and his brother James used to relate numerous thrilling incidents in which William was concerned. Once he sat behind a log, his legs crossed, his rifle over his knee, and a newspaper in front of him. He felt the whizz of a bullet by his ear, and, a moment later, saw that his little toe had been shot off. Jumping up instantly, he saw the puff of smoke rising above the top of a tree. He fired in the direction whence it appeared to have come and had the satisfaction of seeing a dead rebel crash through the branches to the ground.

The next brother, Delos, was a student and did not take much interest in work on the farm. He was responsible for starting James in the work of teaching the deaf, and afterwards he founded the day school for the deaf at St. Louis, now presided over by the Rev. J. H. Cloud. Delos' work as head of the St. Louis school was most successful, and he was so wrapped up in it and was such a hard student that he broke down, both physically and mentally. For a time his brother James had him under his charge in South Dakota, but later, upon the advice of

physicians, he was placed in a sanitarium in Michigan, where he spent many months. His recovery, however, was never complete, and he died there, leaving a loving and loveable wife and daughter. Mrs. Delos Simpson is now and has long been one of the faculty of the South Dakota school.

Mr. Simpson's entrance into the work of educating the deaf came about in a peculiar manner. Moses Folsom, at that time superintendent of the Iowa school, at Council Bluffs, was looking for a corps of well educated young men as instructors. Delos Simpson was among these recommended to him, and Mr. Folsom wrote him, making him an offer. Delos, for some reason, was not disposed to accept the offer made, but it occurred to him that probably James would take the position and fill it acceptably. Accordingly he took Mr. Folsom's letter, a pad of stationery, and some ink to his brother who was at that moment following the plow. He explained the situation and urged James to accept at once, if the tender of the position could be transferred to him. Thus persuaded James wrote Mr. Folsom on the spot, while Delos wrote a letter of explanation of the change in persons.

Thus it was that James Simpson entered upon his life work. He arrived at Council Bluffs in the fall of 1878, ready to enter upon the discharge of his duties. At the Iowa School he found most congenial comrades and co-workers in some of the men and women who are now high in the profession, among them being Prof. F. W. Booth, of Philadelphia, Prof. J. W. Blattner, of Austin, Texas, Prof. F. C. Holloway, still of the Iowa school, and others. These were all young men then and were ready supporters of the Superintendent's progressive policy which was one giving most liberal encouragement to efforts made to replace the machine work and memorizing methods of the old regime, with methods that aimed primarily at mental development and giving the power to read language and to use it independenly of merely memorized forms. Naturally there were frequent, though not unfriendly, clashings between the adherents of the old and the new methods, but the head of the school stood by the new contingent, and as a result the school soon attained a higher standing and the work was carried on along then

modern lines. Two or three years after Mr. Simpson's arrival at Council Bluffs, he had the great satisfaction of seeing eight of his pupils graduate and go to the National College in a body, an honor rarely accorded any one teacher in a school for the deaf.

One of the pupils at the Iowa school during this period was Miss A. Laura Wright, of Burlington, whose sister, Miss Sarah Wright, was matron at the time. A mutual attachment sprang up between Mr. Simpson and Miss Laura, with the inevitable result, the uniting of their lives in the year 1880. Mr. Simpson continued to teach for another year, when, finding his health poor, he sought rest at the Sioux Falls home of his brother-in-law, E. G. Wright, now an attorney in Chicago. The year previous another sister of Mrs. Simpson, Miss Jennie Wright, had gathered together seven or eight deaf children in the county of Minnehaha, in the then Territory of Dakota, and undertaken the task of educating them, in a small building in Sioux Falls. She was assisted by Rev. Thomas B. Berry, who had had some experience in the education of the deaf. This little school struggled along under adverse circumstances for one year, and the promoters were not very enthusiastic for the future. Just at this time Mr. Simpson came to Sioux Falls for his vacation and immediately Miss Wright suggested that he take hold of the work. The result was that a local board of trustees was appointed, the school was organized on a good basis, money was raised among the citizens for the purchase of ten acres of land, a substantial frame structure of thirteen or fourteen rooms was erected, and maintenance was provided for until territorial aid could be secured. Mr. Simpson was appointed superintendent, and on October 21, 1880, he opened the school under most auspicious circumstances in the new building, marking the beginning of the second term of what is now the South Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes.

Superintendent Simpson set about the work of building up a successful school. His efforts were crowned with the greatest success. From an enrollment of eight pupils on October 21, 1880, it has grown to about sixty-five at present, and having to its credit at least two hundred and twenty-five who have received instruction within its walls. Three years after the frame

building was taken possession of, a $15,000 stone building was under way, and three years later still another $15,000 stone building was being erected. Four additional structures have since been built, all of Sioux Falls jasper, through the untiring efforts of Superintendent Simpson. Thirty acres additional of land has also been purchased and the purchase was made none too soon. Mr. Simpson's foresight told him he should act quickly or the residence part of the east side of Sioux Falls would close in around his school, leaving it with a paltry ten acres. The forty acres in a body now possessed by the school will prove ample for its needs for many years to come. The location of the school is most sightly, commanding a view of the entire city of Sioux Falls, taking in the state penitentiary on the north and the numerous educational institutions in the center and to the south, while below it, a full mile distant, can be seen the beautiful Sioux River as it winds in and out among a thick growth of woods. At the time Mr. Simpson took charge of the school the surroundings were anything but pleasant. The soil was raw prairie and appeared susceptible of no improvement. Yet today the visitor to the institution finds a number of imposing structures, so grouped that a conflagration in one would not affect the others, and equipped with all modern improvements. Beautiful lawns and driveways are everywhere and scores of tall deciduous and evergreen trees combine to make the whole a most pleasant and homelike spot.

The first years of the work of building up the school were trying ones. The exchequer of the territory of Dakota was none too full, but each succeeding legislature provided for the needs of the state's institutions as liberally as was consistent with the condition of its treasury. The school for the deaf received its share, but its maintenance and the equipment of its buildings left nothing for the employment of much help. Mr. Simpson for six years was superintendent, teacher, steward, and all. In 1887, however, things were better and the luxury of three teachers, one supervisor, and a nightwatchman was indulged in, relieving Mr. Simpson of most arduous duties and leaving him free to set in operation long-cherished plans for a manual training department and general farm work.

Mr. Simpson was a man of large kindness of heart, but firm in all his directions. He was a deep thinker and had the courage of his convictions. He never acted hastily in any matter of importance, but weighed every question carefully. To this, without doubt, was due in large measure his remarkable success in practically everything he undertook. His methods of teaching were conservative, practical, and successful. He followed closely the methods pursued by Prof. O. D. Cooke, maintaining that they were as near as he could come to those of the originator of the education of the deaf in America, Dr. Thomas H. Gallaudet. The combined system was his plan of education, and he required that everything be done in a thorough manner. Time was not considered lost if a little was thoroughly mastered by the pupil. He believed the progress made depended very largely upon the kind of application made. There was in the methods of Mr. Simpson nothing of the numerous present-day innovations that tend to bewilder rather than to help the pupil, but every legitimate aid was quickly grasped and utilized. He endeavored to teach the deaf as much as possible on the lines laid down for the public schools, and aimed to secure in every case first an understanding of the subject by the pupil. With such understanding and a knowledge of the meaning of every word and sentence, the work of teaching the English language became a much easier problem.

He was a consistent friend of the teaching of speech and lip-reading to the deaf. He would not, however, consent for a moment to permit the oral method to supplant the manual alphabet and the use of signs in inculcating into the pupil's mind a comprehension of the rudiments of language. He maintained that signs were a necessary part in the education of the deaf, for only through them, he said, could the pupil gather a full comprehension of the meaning sought to be conveyed by spoken or written language. Once the meaning was clear, signs could be discarded and either written or spelled words and sentences made the sole reliance. He always, when the money at his disposal would permit, had an articulation teacher at the school, and every opportunity was given each pupil to show what he or she was capable of doing in articulation and lip-reading.

On the question of industrial training for the deaf Mr. Simpson was one of the comparatively small number who think this branch of education is not carried far enough in the schools. He was an enthusiast on the subject and sought by every means at his command to provide for his pupils such lines of work as would properly meet their inclinations. But he could not carry out all the plans he wished to, owing to a lack of sufficient funds. However, he had the great satisfaction of seeing some of his boys and girls go through a course of training in some trade or other line of work that affords them a comfortable living and places them in the same class as skilled workmen. It was always Mr. Simpson's proud boast that they received their elementary training under him, and in his biennial reports he invariably made reference to the latest case or cases achieving more or less distinction along industrial lines.

By nature Mr. Simpson despised ostentation, and he took little interest in what the press said about him. If there was anything that could be construed as intended to reflect upon him or upon his management of the school, he would dismiss it with the remark he could afford to let it go unnoticed. His work would speak for him. It has been said of him that he was opposed to having his pupils enter Gallaudet College. Such is not the case. His position on the subject has been entirely misconstrued. He had nothing against the college nor did he oppose any one entering the institution, provided there were prospects of the five years' course benefitting the student. He believed that a course in a state university, a state agricultural college, or a normal school would benefit a deaf student as much, or perhaps more, and the chances for a more practical training were greater, he said. One of his pupils took a course in the school of dairying at the state university of Minnesota, and another, a young lady, entered the state normal school of South Dakota. Both gave creditable account of themselves. Still another entered Gallaudet College a few years ago. His first regular graduate at the South Dakota school took the full preparatory course of the college under his instruction, but instead of entering the college he made preparation to enter the South Dakota state university the following fall. His health, however, failed toward

the end of his last term and the university course was abandoned.

In all matters of business Mr. Simpson was one of the shrewdest men to be found. One of his first acts upon coming to Sioux Falls from the Iowa school was to invest all his spare money in city property, which yielded him a handsome profit in due time. During his incumbency as superintendent he was interested in several successful business enterprises which did not require too much of his time. He was the owner of a valuable stock farm in Iowa, and had a large ranch not far from the Missouri River, in the central part of South Dakota. He also owned a fair sized farm on the outskirts of the city of Sioux Falls, and was part owner of a brick business block in Burlington, Iowa. These various properties, if converted into money, would provide revenue more than enough to maintain his family in comfort for many years.

Comment has often been made upon the length of time Mr. Simpson held the superintendency of the South Dakota school—a total of nearly twenty-three years, which is a record approached by no other deaf man. His policy was conservative and his management careful and economical. He refused to have anything to do with politics. The people of the state looked upon the school for the deaf as one that should be kept strictly out of politics, and so long as the administration of affairs was in capable hands they were opposed to any change. The politicians in power in the state looked with longing eyes upon the school as a choice plum, but between the sentiment of the people and politicial obligations, the board in charge dared not disturb existing conditions. In the spring of 1903, however, a few politicians became so bold as to override the sentiment of the people and by a plan by no means creditable to them, succeeded in their designs. Four members of the board, under the plea of economy, voted to cut the superintendent's salary almost in two. The fifth member was so opposed to the action that he resigned forthwith. Superintendent Simpson, upon being informed of the decision to reduce his salary, very properly resigned. This was what the four members desired, for the way was thus opened for using his position in furthering their own political schemes without check or hindrance.

The private life of James Simpson was above reproach. He was a thorough student, easily and quickly mastering whatever subject he took up. He was a great reader, especially of scientific and agricultural topics, in which he always took a keen and active interest. The trend of public affairs he followed closely. In a social way his inclinations were of a domestic nature, he preferring the companionship of a few chosen congenial friends. His home life was most happy, and he took the greatest pride in his family of three bright boys, all of whom, with their mother, survive him. A fourth child—a girl and the last of the family—died while yet an infant. The family is left in comfortable circumstances and is residing in Sioux Falls. The oldest of the boys, Howard, was a volunteer in the South Dakota regiment that went through the campaign in the Philippines in the early days of hostilities. He and his brother Grant are now managing a theatrical troupe on the road. Grant was for a time with the North Brothers Opera Company, where he obtained his theatrical training. The third son, Lawrence, is with his mother and attends the public schools in their home town.

CIRCULAR OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION COMMITTEE RELATING TO SCHOOL EXHIBITS AT ST. LOUIS.

To Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf:

At a regular meeting of the Board of Directors of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, the undersigned were appointed a Committee representing the Association to cooperate in the interests of teaching speech to the deaf with the Committee appointed by the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf at Buffalo, which Committee has in charge the exhibit of schools for the deaf at the Louisiania Purchase Exposition. The offer to cooperate with this Convention Committee was made to Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet, its chairman, and our proposed services were gladly accepted by his Committee and the Exposition authorities.

Extensive and satisfactory arrangements are making at the Exposition for the continuous operation in the Palace of Education during the months of May to November of a Model School for the Deaf under the supervision of Mr. Alvin E. Pope, Superintendent of Group Seven, Department of Education. This school will consist of twelve rooms or spaces, properly divided, eight of which will be used for a living exhibit, and four for an objective exhibit. The Exposition Company provides free space for school-rooms and for dormitories. The school-rooms for both literary and industrial classes have been equipped as exhibits within themselves by public-spirited and enterprising business houses, and one of the Washington University dormitories, just completed and now furnished, will be placed at our disposal. Arrangements have been made for taking care of pupils taking part in the living exhibit, the estimated cost for maintenance being from $5.00 to $8.00 per capita each week. To this expense must be added the cost of maintenance for teacher and supervisor accompanying the class, for which, probably, provision will be made in the dormitory. A circular giving detailed informa-

tion concerning the exhibit has heretofore been sent to heads of schools by Mr. Pope, to whom further inquiries should be directed, care of Exposition, St. Louis.

The living exhibit is to consist of classes with teachers and supervisors, no class to have more than six pupils. Any number of classes may be sent from any school to illustrate any one or several lines of work. This exhibit will certainly be one of the most interesting and instructive features of the Exposition, and we urge upon the heads of schools that speech and speech-reading classes be sent to participate in this united effort for a living exhibit in order to show to the thousands what has been and is now being done to give speech and the understanding of speech to the deaf, and to show that education by such means is an accomplished fact. A living exhibit will be far-reaching in its results and will be remembered and talked of when much else is forgotten.

We respectfully insist that *now is the time for prompt action* upon your part looking to a full presentation of the oral work of all schools by means of a living exhibit, and for the making of an objective exhibit by means of charts, photographs of classes, school apparatus and furnishings, together with courses of study, text-books, etc., etc., and whatever could be presented that would make clear the plan and scope and beneficent results of our oral schools and classes.

If you have not already taken steps for such an exhibit, please do so at once for the sake of the cause in general. If the institution funds are not sufficient to permit of the expense, take the matter up with your State Commission on World's Fair, or with your Governor (who may have at his disposal a contingency fund for emergencies), and probably one or the other may be able to render financial aid in this laudable undertaking, which will reflect more luster upon a State than will its exhibits along many other lines. Mr. Pope and this Committee will be pleased to render you any possible assistance.

RICHARD O. JOHNSON, Chairman.
EDMUND LYON,
ELBERT A. GRUVER.

Indianapolis, February 15, 1904.

CALL FOR THE ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION.

To the Members of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf:

The Fourteenth Annual Meeting of The American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf will be held in Northampton, Mass., at the Clarke School, on Friday, May 13, 1904, at 10 o'clock A. M.

The special business will be the election of three Directors to serve three years in place of the retiring Directors whose terms expire in 1904, viz., Caroline A. Yale, Edmund Lyon, and Richard O. Johnson.

Action taken at the last Annual Meeting of the Association requires that the question of the enlargement of the Board of Directors shall also be considered and passed upon. The following minute from the proceedings of that meeting relates the action referred to:

> Under the provisions of Article VIII of the Constitution, Mr. Lyon presented in writing the following amendment:
>
> To amend Section 1, Article V, of the Constitution as follows:
>
> In the second line, strike out the word "nine" and in its place insert "fifteen"; strike out the word "three" same line and insert "five," and further add to the last sentence: "in case of failure of the President to appoint, by the Chairman of the meeting."
>
> As thus amended Section 1, Article V, will read as follows:
>
> The Board of Directors shall be composed of fifteen members of the Association five of whom shall be elected by the Association at each Annual Meeting, to serve for three years. Directors shall be elected by ballot, under the supervision of inspectors, to be appointed by the President: in case of failure of the President to appoint, by the Chairman of the meeting.

In case the proposed amendment to the Constituton is adopted and the Board is enlarged, nine Directors will be elected to serve as follows: five for three years, two for two years, and two for one year.

The attention of members who wish to make nominations for Directors is called to Article V, Section 2, of the Constitution, which reads as follows: "Nominations for the office of Director shall be made in writing, and placed in the hands of both the President and the Secretary, at least one month prior to the date of election, and no person not so nominated shall be eligible to the office of Director."

No literary programme will be presented at this meeting, and only formal business matters, including reports of officers and committees, will be considered.

For further particulars address Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, Secretary, Rochester, N. Y.

(Signed), ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL,
President of A. A. P. T. S. D.,
1331 Connecticut Ave.,
Washington, D. C.

Z. F. WESTERVELT, Secretary,
School for the Deaf,
Rochester, N. Y.

THE NINTH CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

To the Members of the Conference:

The proposed meeting this year of the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf having been postponed to the summer of 1905, the Executive Committee of the Conference, after full thought and advice in the matter, considers it proper and wise that a meeting of the Conference should be held this year and therefore issues this call for the Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf, to meet in St. Louis, Missouri, Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, October 17, 18, 19, and 20, 1904.

Under resolutions passed at previous meetings of the Conference, Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf constitute the active membership, while ex-superintendents and principals, the principals of schools for the deaf having but one class and one teacher, said teacher being the principal, the wives and families in all cases, and such other persons as may be especially invited, are eligible only for honorary membership, giving them voice but no vote. It seems proper that State officers and trustees of schools should be invited and urged to attend the various sessions.

The personnel of this Conference will be broadened by an invitation to heads of foreign schools, the meeting thus taking on the nature of an International Congress of Heads of Schools for the Deaf under the auspices jointly of the Conference and the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, which will second this call and issue invitations to representatives of the profession abroad, who will be welcomed and gladly received as members by the Conference.

All questions pertaining to the intellectual, moral, religious, and industrial training of the deaf will be proper subjects generally for papers and discussion at the Conference, and especially may be mentioned subjects along practical lines relating to management, matters of legislation, salaries and wages, courses of

study, literary and industrial, higher education in our State schools, our relation to the College, the advantages and disadvantages of day-schools and their supervision and relation to the State school, post-graduate courses, aid and supervision for the deaf subsequent to school life, and many other subjects constantly brought to a superintendent's attention and not usually touched upon at our other meetings except in an incidental and superficial manner. A synoptical programme, giving place of meeting, hours of daily sessions, papers to be read, subjects for discussion, etc., etc., will be issued in due time. Members of the Conference, active or honorary, and visitors from abroad, who may wish to read papers or take part in discussion upon any particular phase of our work, or who desire to send papers for reading by others and for publication, or who may wish to suggest any question for consideration in the Conference either by themselves or by others or by means of a question box through assignment by the Committee, are urgently requested to communicate with the Chairman not later than June 1, so that a tentative programme may be promptly issued giving much needed information. Written papers should not require more than fifteen minutes to read, and individual discussion should be limited to ten minutes.

Regular sessions of the Conference will be held on Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday, the Tuesday intervening being given over to participation in the special feature of the week, the Helen Keller Day demonstration, arrangements for which are making under direction of the Exposition authorities and a special Committee, the details of which will be outlined in the Conference programme.

Foreign professional journals are respectfully requested to make notice of and copy this call.

RICHARD O. JOHNSON, Chairman, Indiana,
FRANCIS D. CLARKE, Michigan,
JOSEPH H. JOHNSON, Alabama,
WM. K. ARGO, Colorado,
A. L. E. CROUTER, Pennsylvania,
The Executive Committee.

Indianapolis, Indiana, February 9, 1904.

THE SIGN-LANGUAGE IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS.

OLOF HANSON, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON.

The following statistics, showing the number of pupils in schools which do, and which do not, recognize and use the sign-language, have been compiled from the Annals for January, 1904, in the same manner as in former years.

In the Annals the various schools are recorded according to methods of instruction used as Combined, Oral, Manual, Manual Alphabet, and Oral-Manual Alphabet. The Combined System schools employ all methods that have been found advantageous in educating the deaf, many of the pupils being taught entirely by speech in the class room. But it is generally understood that all or nearly all the schools reported in the Annals as Combined recognize and use the sign-language for chapel services, public addresses, lectures, etc., although in many of them it is restricted or even excluded from the class room. The Manual schools are similiar to the Combined except that for lack of means or other untoward circumstances, they are unable to give instruction in speech. Manual Alphabet schools use the manual alphabet but reject the sign-language in and out of the class room. Those recorded as Oral schools are supposed to exclude both the sign-language and the manual alphabet, although in point of fact this is not strictly the case in some of them.

Those classed as Oral-Manual Alphabet are understood to use the Oral and Manual Alphabet methods in separate departments and to exclude the sign-language. But in the Illinois Institution the sign-language is still used for chapel services, etc., practically as in other Combined schools, and therefore in these statistics this school is included among those that use the sign-language.

1. Sign-language recognized and used:

Pupils in Combined Schools.....8492
" in Manual Schools..... 72
" in Illinois Institution..... 484
——— 9048 or 80.6%

2. Manual Alphabet, but no sign-language:

Pupils in Western New York Institution.....176
" in Mt. Airy, Manual Department..... 34
—— 210 or 1.9%

3. No sign-language, no manual alphabet:

Pupils in Oral Schools.....1494
" in Mt. Airy School, Oral Department..... 473
——— 1967 or 17.5%

Tabular statement of sign-language in American schools for the deaf from 1900 to 1903 inclusive:

Dates.	1 Sign Language used.		2 Manual Alphabet but no sign language.		3 No sign language. No Manual Alphabet.		Totals.	
	Pupils	P't'ge	Pupils	P't'ge	Pupils	P't'ge	Pupils	P't'ge
1900, Nov. 10....	8645	81.5%	196	1.9%	1767	16.6%	10,608	100.%
1901, Nov. 10....	8967	81.3%	211	1.9%	1850	16.8%	11,028	100.%
1902, Nov. 10....	8839	80.7%	209	1.8%	1904	17.5%	10,952	100.%
1903, Nov. 10....	9048	80.6%	210	1.9%	1967	17.5%	11,225	100.%

Through inadvertence, in the REVIEW for April, 1903, page 196, the Western *Pennsylvania* Institution is mentioned as using the manual alphabet but no sign language. It should have been the Western *New York* Institution.

CONTEMPORARY THOUGHT.

CORRECTING ARTICULATION.

The best present which a teacher of the deaf can give to his pupils on their way through life, is an intelligible speech which does not produce an unpleasant impression on hearing persons, together with a considerable degree of skill in lip-reading. If a deaf person possesses these two requisities, he has gained a basis from which he may start out with a reasonable hope of successfully making his way through life. If the deaf person is a good lip-reader, hearing persons will take pleasure in conversing with him, as it can be done without having to resort to paper and pencil.

As regards the vast majority of the deaf, properly so called, who are educated in schools—in contradistinction to those who are instructed by private tutors at home, where a vastly larger amount of time, effort, and exercise of course produce much better results—the main school will be life itself, as it is for every ordinary man. The most important thing for the deaf in this connection is, after all, a clear and intelligible pronunciation. When studying the problem of the pronunciation of the deaf and the most effective means of improving it, we are confronted by the old but always important question: How does it come that the pronunciation of many of our pupils during the period of schooling, rather deteriorates than improves? In answering this question it has frequently been stated that the young pupil has to learn only a few words, and that he must pronounce these few words slowly. Owing to lack of exercise, it is not possible for him to speak fast; nor does the teacher require this. The beginner in learning to speak has moreover to devote his entire attention to the successful formation and combination of the sounds composing the word which he is to pronounce. This, people say, explains the comparatively good pronunciation of beginners.

On the other hand it is asserted that the pupils in the higher grades, simply owing to the greater exercise of the organs of speech, will involuntarily acquire a quicker speech. In this respect, sometimes one sound, and at times another, will be influenced in its composing element, i. e., breath, voice, noise, and resonance, in such a way as to change its normal character and produce an unfavorable change in the pronunciation of a word. During the entire course of instruction the teacher should never lose sight of the following: he should never allow the pupil to speak faster than his power of speech permits. The pupils should, therefore, often be reminded to speak "slowly and distinctly." This rule should be followed strictly and consistently. Hearing children must often be reminded of this; all the more is this needed with deaf children who, though possessing a fine ability for speaking, nevertheless still find some difficulty in forming and combining sounds.

Furthermore, the teacher should be careful that the pupil is furnished with matter for the exercise of speech which is commensurate with his power of language expression. Nothing is more injurious than the thoughtless, mechanical repetition of sentences, whose meaning and form have not been fully grasped. It is self-evident that thereby indistinct speaking is produced. Another injurious influence—nearly always beyond the control of the teacher—is the frequently defective speech used in conversation between the deaf pupils themselves.

In connection with all that has been stated above, the thought lies very near that only individual instruction of the deaf among hearing persons can produce truly ideal results. Although it is well nigh impossible to reach these ideals in our schools, we should, nevertheless, constantly keep them before us, and approximate them as nearly as possible. This means that we should not only prevent the speech of our pupils from deterioration, but strive to gradually but surely reach an improvement. To accomplish this it will above everything else be necessary not only to maintain the correct pronunciation of the single sounds and their combinations, but also to perfect it. The greatest attention should constantly be paid to the strength, height, and purity of the voice. All defects, as soon as detected, should immediately be counteracted with all possible energy, so as to prevent the pupil from getting into wrong ruts. If the defects of pronunciation which may cling to the pupil after passing through the articulation class, and possibly even in the next grade, are considered incorrigible, all that could be done would be to remain satisfied with what has been done, and simply endeavor to prevent deterioration. But, fortunately, it is a fact that there is

a chance for improving the pronunciation of sounds by the pupils, even after the articulation class has been passed, and this matter should receive full attention and never tiring care. This, however, is possible only if through all the classes certain hours or half-hours are specially devoted to the improvement of the pronunciation. No other branch of instruction demands such special devotion to the individual pupil, such painful individualizing, as the instruction in articulation, if it is to bear fruit. A certain time devoted solely to this purpose is what is needed. But apart from this, the teacher should in all the other hours of instruction be ever watchful, and not let a single fault in pronunciation, be it ever so slight, pass unnoticed. The difficulties in this respect seem almost insurmountable; but by using the strong weapons of patience, calmness, and perseverance, they can be conquered.

In the special hours devoted to the improvement of speech, exercises should be gone through with each pupil in turn, paying special attention in each individual case to those points which are calculated to further speech in such particular case. To find out what is needed requires the closest possible observation of the speech of the pupil. Gross mistakes will of course not escape attention even if no special care is taken in observing the pupils; but to detect seemingly insignificant causes of incorrect speech—and this is the first and foremost condition of correction—requires constant, strenuous listening, looking, and thinking on the part of the teacher.

In most cases, when by observation the cause of the defect has been ascertained, the knowledge is also gained whether, and by what means, correction can be effected. Such a mode of procedure imbues the instruction with greater interest, and tends to exercise a calming influence on the teacher, because he is positively conscious of the reasons for taking certain measures; and is likewise beneficial to the pupil, as it prevents mere mechanical instruction. In this way the pupils will be spared the unjustified demands—otherwise frequently made—to improve something which it is beyond their power to improve, and will not get tired of renewing their efforts.

The closest possible observation of the speech of the pupils is therefore the first and foremost condition of an actual improvement of their speech. For this purpose each teacher should gather all the observations made of their pupils, and collate and tabulate them. Such statements would also be of immense value to another teacher who has to take the class; and they would furnish interesting data showing the progress or regress of each pupil as regards his pronunciation. The following,

though liable to improvements and modifications, may serve as a guide in preparing such a statement:

The points to be observed should be: 1, the formation of single sounds; 2, the combination of these sounds, and breathing; 3. the voice, as regards height, strength, and purity; 4, the mouth-sound; 5, the motion of the jaws and mouth; 6, tongue-articulation; 7, the expression of the face whilst speaking; and possibly, 8, how the pupil would presumably have spoken if he had not had the misfortune to become deaf. This last-mentioned question could probably be answered with approximate correctness, if the teacher has occasion to learn to know the speech and general bearing of the parents and the brothers and sisters of the pupil.

As regards backward pupils, the difficulties in articulation will naturally be very great. In their case it may be well to aid their understanding by motions of the hand and fingers. This should not, however, be done at a rule, but merely as a means for reaching the desired end, when nothing else will do this. Here we may truly apply the Jesuitical principal: "The end justifies the means."—Blätter für Taubstummenbildung.

CAUSES OF DEAFNESS.

At the very outset it should be stated that the investigation of the causes of deafness is as yet an unsolved problem. An examination of 838 cases of deafness was made at the National Institution for the Deaf at Bordeaux, with the following results: 1, influence of sex: the defect is more frequent in males than in females; 2, nationality: it is more frequent in the mountainous regions of Europe (Carpathians, Pyrinees) than in flat countries; 3, age of the parents: does not seem to have any special influence; 4, consanguinity of the parents: attention has been directed to this cause centuries ago, and the question has been thoroughly studied by Prosper Ménière (1856). Personal observations have shown that one deaf person in every ten is descended from consanguineous parents. Occasional causes (meningitis etc.) may bring out the defect in a person predisposed thereto. Consanguinity appears to have this effect that it adds together the defects found in the two parents; 5, heredity: the direct transmission of deafness from the father and mother to the children is very rare; and the indirect transmission from grand parents to grand children is five times as rare. The defect may sometimes pass by one or more generations; 6, influence of syphilis: this influence has been proved by the occurrence of

hereditary syphilitic indications in a number of children, also by the high rate of mortality prevailing among their brothers and sisters, and by occasional confessions of the parents; 7, tuberculosis, rachitis, lead-poisoning, and especially alcoholism of the parents undoubtedly exercise an injurious influence; 8, accidents during pregnancy (infectious diseases of the mother, falls, mental excitement, etc.) may play their part in occasionally aiding the development of deafness.

As already stated, Prosper Ménière in 1856 for the first time in a paper read before the French Academy, called attention to the frequency of deafness among children from consanguineous marriages. Since then this line of inquiry has been pursued in many countries, and the influence of consanguinity on deafness proved by numerous statistics. The statistics of the Paris Institution for the Deaf showed 28.35 per cent. of deaf children from consanguineous marriages. The statistics gathered by Ladreit de Lacharrière showed that of 107 children 17 were born under such conditions. In Bordeaux the following statistics were obtained: among 318 children who were examined, 11 came from marriages where the parents were cousins, 4 where the grand parents were cousins, and 12 where the parents were children of cousins; in all 27, therefore a percentage of 8.49. It may therefore be assumed as approximately correct that among 10 deaf, one is descended from consanguineous ancestors.—Medizinische-pädagogische Monatsschrift für die gesammte Spraheilkunde.

AGNETE HALONEN, A BLIND AND DEAF FINNISH GIRL.

Agnete Halonen was born on the 19th of September, 1886, at Vehmais, in Finland, her parents being poor farmers. At her birth she could both see and hear; but at the age of one and a half years she had a severe attack of scarlet fever, and as a consequence lost her sight. About a year later she had a boil on her neck, and, after that was cured, she was found to be deaf. Soon she lost what little she had of speech, becoming ere long entirely mute. In order to communicate with her parents and her brothers and sisters she gradually made use of certain signs. "No" she indicated by a slight slap on the hand; "yes" by stroking the cheek; "to eat" by pointing to the mouth, etc. It was seen from this that her mind had not been affected, and when she had reached the age of eight, she was, through the influence of some kindly disposed persons, placed in the school for the blind at Helsingfors.

In the beg nning she could not take part in the general instruction, but had to be instructed separately. The first word she learned was "door." The teacher placed her near the door, let her feel it, and then by the finger alphabet taught her the letters which go to make up the word "door." She soon become a perfect adept in the finger language, and in reading raised print. Writing seemed harder for her to acquire; during the first year she only learned to write ten words; but after the third year, she could write short descriptions of various objects.

After having spent nine years at the institution, she could easily read books with raised print, and express her thoughts very well in writing. She had also acquired an excellent knowledge of religion, geography, arithmetic, and natural philosophy; by means of touch she could distinguish the various plants; she had learned to knit, sew, weave, spin, and make brushes. On the 11th of April, 1903, she partook of the holy communion for the first time, and religion with her has become a matter of the heart and not of the mind. Although she is both deaf and blind, she is always cheerful and happy.—Effata, published at Fredericia, Denmark.

THE DEAF AS MEMBERS OF HUMAN SOCIETY.

The history of the education of the deaf shows that in former times this branch of education was in many states consigned to the District Boards of Charity. With the view to prevent the deaf from becoming in their old age a burden on the public funds, some means—modest enough—were provided to render the deaf able to become in some manner members of human society. This was, of course, better than nothing; but, on the whole, the results were not satisfactory; and the view rapidly and very generally gained ground that better means of education must be provided, and institutions for the proper education of the deaf were founded, and the tendency was to improve and perfect the method of education so as to yield the best results. But simply a stay of a number of years at such an institution, even if its arrangements and methods are well nigh perfect, is not all that is needed.

If the deaf are to become not only passive, but active, members of human society, it is necessary that the deaf child should, 1st, receive a careful, rational, and Christian education in its home; 2nd, should at the age of five attend a kindergarten

for deaf for two years at most. After a careful education, which should as much as possible be similar to that imparted to hearing children, and after suitable physical training for preparing the body to do hard manual labor, the child should, 3d, at the age of seven be sent to an institution for the deaf, and stay there till it has acquired speech, and till its religious and moral character has been sufficiently strengthened to enable it to pursue its way through life. When the deaf child leaves the institution, he should be urged to learn a trade or to engage in agricultural pursuits. Occupations where the eye has to be principally exercised should be avoided as much as possible, in order that the deaf person whose main reliance is the eye, may not run the risk of injuring this most important sense. Whilst apprenticed to some trade, the deaf should, 4th, regularly attend a school for adults. Also, whilst attending school, the deaf should be made to attend divine service regularly, and from the earliest age learn to consider themselves members of a religious community. After schooling is finished, the church should step in, and 5th, see to it that divine service for the deaf is held regularly. This does not, however, exhaust the duty of the church. A deaf person needs an unselfish friend, counsellor, helper, and comforter. The minister is the proper person to attend to these duties, in his capacity as servant of that Master who has called unto himself those who labor and are heavy laden. On the other hand, the state should step in and aid the deaf, by, 6th, advancing money or extending other aid to the worthy but poor deaf, who desire to start a business, or to get married. From general economical principles, and for the reasons above stated, the government should, 7th, provide suitable homes for old and indigent deaf. In order not to interfere with the rights of citizens to which educated deaf who occupy an independent position in life are entitled, the state should modify its laws, so that, 8th, all deaf persons, who in daily intercourse and in transactions in court can make themselves understood without an interpreter, may enjoy equal rights with hearing persons.

All these eight points referred to above, are important; some of their requirements will be easy to fulfill; others will be more difficult and require money. But, nevertheless, earnest efforts should be made by the government, the church, and benevolent private individuals to reach the desired end; and it should be remembered that the education of a deaf person is by no manner of means finished when he has acquired speech, but that the great aim is to make him a useful, honored, and self-supporting member of human society.—Organ der Taubstummen-Anstalten in Deutschland.

PRACTICAL INSTRUCTION AND EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.

Under the above title a work has been published by F. W. Handering, Guben, Germany, which deserves more than passing notice; and we give, briefly, some of the salient points in this interesting work:

Every day life, experience gained by his own effort, in short the need of the deaf child of inner development, must in all cases serve as a guide in selecting the language lessons. The teacher of the deaf should be a "whole man" in the fullest sense of the term. He should not only possess pedagogical knowledge, have mastered the art of teaching, and have acquired by proper study the necessary fund of general and special knowledge required, but he should also be a man who never ceases to study the question as to the best manner of influencing the wasted and undeveloped mind of the deaf child. He should not be satisfied with being simply a dry instructor, but he should consider the little interests, feelings, views, aims, etc., of his pupils as more important than the instilling of formal knowledge. The education of the deaf should, therefore, not represent a mere "doing for," but a common working and living of the teacher *with* his pupils. A great point gained is to put the pupil in the right mood for engaging in the laborious business of learning to speak. The pupil should never be frightened by harsh words or actions, but be filled with a certain enthusiasm, by gentle methods, and by suitable aids (pictures, other inanimate objects, animals, etc.), and this joyful enthusiasm will then not infrequently result in natural speech. The more we infuse "soul" into the automatic and mechanical speech of the deaf child, all the better for teachers and pupils, and for their daily life and intercourse.

Lip-reading is of course the main point during the first years of instruction, and far up into the middle grades. Even the younger and less gifted pupils will acquire a very delightful skill in reading off sentences, if their contents are sufficiently clear, if they are repeated often, and if the pupil has taken hold of them with the necessary interest and attention. In this connection it should be stated that there should be no overcrowding of the mind of the pupil with all sorts of knowledge. The right way is this: "Speak much and on many subjects to your pupils. Force yourself to do this, even if for the moment you don't feel in the mood for conversation with children. Give to your pupils speech, and they will acquire a true understanding of speech." From the very start the intelligent understanding of speech

should be furthered in the pupils. In every case it should be ascertained by careful examination whether the pupils have not only read correctly, but whether they have understood correctly. The motto for all speech-instruction should be: "What we teach, the children must acquire by learning through repeated exercises."—Blätter für Taubstummenbildung.

RECEPTIVENESS OF THE SENSE OF HEARING IN THE DIFFERENT RACES OF MEN.

The English physiologist R. Meade Bache has made investigations relative to the question whether the various races of men possess the same receptiveness of the organs of the senses. Especially as regards the sense of hearing his investigations have brought to light some interesting facts. The main question was to ascertain whether an impression produced on the organ of hearing is perceived equally quickly by the different races. Certain noises or sounds were selected for this experiment. The result was as follows: With the Indian 116 thousandths of a second pass until he perceives the sound, Africans 130 thousandths, Caucasians 147 thousandths. Caucasians, therefore, hear less quickly. A long series of experiments all gave the same result. Mr. Bache is of opinion that the higher intelligence of the Caucasian race was obtained at the expense of the quickness of the impressions received through the senses. He is probably right. If we carefully examine the animal kingdom we will find this corroborated.—Deutsche Taubstummen-Korrespondenz.

SPIRITUAL CARE OF THE DEAF.

The question of the spiritual care of the deaf has been much discussed of late in Germany. The association of Saxon teachers of the deaf, at its meetings in Leipzig, on the 14th of November, likewise devoted some attention to this subject. In the kingdom of Saxony, it appears, the problem has been satisfactorily solved, principally owing to the earnest effort of Educational Counsellor Stötzner, the former Director of the Dresden Institution for the deaf. As at present organized, divine service is held for the deaf 150 times a year in a number of the principal cities of Saxony. These divine services, are, with the approval of the Lutheran Consistory, conducted by teachers of the deaf

who, prompted by an inner calling, have undertaken this duty without any special remuneration. The divine services of the deaf have a peculiar character, as the teacher conducting them must by lip-reading and mimic language accommodate himself to the nature of the deaf. This organization has been accompanied by great blessing, and has successfully counteracted the spiritual loneliness of the adult deaf. The Government has appropriated a small sum to defray the traveling expenses of these itinerant teachers; and suitable books of devotion, specially adapted to the deaf, will soon be published.—Deutsche Taubstummen-Korrespondenz.

THE EDUCATION OF BACKWARD AND MENTALLY WEAK DEAF CHILDREN.

The thoughts on this subject are brought out in connection with a visit of the author (Mr. Stelling, Emden,) to the institutions for the deaf in Denmark and Norway. The question of dividing the deaf pupils according to capacity has occupied the teachers of the deaf for a good many years. But whilst hitherto this division was made almost exclusively in the interest of the pure speech method, therefore, in favor of the better education of the more talented ones, this division is urgently demanded at the present time for the sake of the weaker pupils, and in order that full justice may be done to them. Till far into the seventies of the last (19th) century this question was hardly thought of. Its development is quite natural, in view of the following: The education of the deaf was, and is still at the present day, in most countries a matter which exclusively interests humane and benevolent people. In very few countries we find compulsory education of the deaf. Therefore, it took such a long time till the care of the various government and municipal authorities was extended to all the deaf. At the time pupils were admitted to the existing institutions, more children applied than there was room for. The authorities of these institutions had, therefore, to make a selection from the applications. It is hardly necessary to say that it was not the backward and mentally weak who were selected. If it was found that a mistake had been made and that some child, after having been admitted to the institution turned out an undesirable pupil, the child was dismissed as unfit for education, and some other child admitted in its stead. This course, however can fortunately no longer be followed, since a sufficient number of institutions had been established to accom-

modate all deaf children; although there are even at this day institutions of a somewhat exclusive character which follow the old practice. Consequently, we find at this day in nearly all institutions for the deaf about 25 per cent. of the pupils who cannot keep step with the others. Thus the whole subject has become more and more important and resolves itself into the question: what arrangements are to be made so as not to hinder the development of the brighter pupils, and at the same time to do full justice to the weaker ones. The only possible answer is "division by capacity." This division, however, is not as simple a matter as might appear at first sight, for a most difficult question is intimately connected with the first one, viz., the question regarding the education and development of the backward and weak minded deaf pupils. The study of these questions induced Mr. Stelling to visit some of the institutions for the deaf in Denmark and Norway, in which countries the division of the pupils according to capacity has been carried out more consistently and more systematically than in other European countries, and has on the whole been accompanied by excellent results.—Medizinisch-pädagogische Monatsschrift für die gesammte Sprachheilkunde.

A NEW INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF IN AUSTRIA.

On the 24th of October, 1903, a new Institution for the Deaf was solemnly dedicated at the town of Wiener-Neustadt, thirteen miles south of Vienna. The means for establishing this institution had been furnished by the Provincial authorities of the Province of Lower Austria, and amounted to 360,000 kroner (nearly $70,000). Among those present at the dedication exercises were the Minister of Public Instruction, the Governor of the Province, the mayor of Wiener-Neustadt, and nearly all the higher civil and ecclesiastical officials of the Province. It may not be out of place to give a short description of this new institution which, owing to its close proximity to the great city of Vienna, is destined to occupy an important place in the Austrian system of the education of the deaf.

The building stands entirely free, and is surrounded by a beautiful park. Wherever you look, the eye is met by beautiful trees and lawns, and beyond, in the blue distance, rise the glorious mountains of Lower Austria. Light and air permeate all

the lofty rooms of the institution. The ground floor contains the office and living rooms of the director, the sick-rooms, and five class-rooms. On the first floor we find the large dining hall, which will also serve as a hall for public occasions, five class-rooms, sitting-rooms for boys and girls, a room for drawing, a room for meetings of the director and teachers, the library, and living rooms for the teachers; the second floor contains five large and airy dormitories, with bath rooms, clothes-rooms, some additional living rooms for teachers, and the chapel. The basement contains a hall for gymnastics, a swimming bath, the kitchen, the laundry, and machine-room. Everything is on a liberal scale, proper use having been made of all modern improvements. The arrangement of the class-rooms is not only practical but elegant, so that the pupils will at once receive cheerful impressions.

The collection of aids to instruction is already very large; and the library contains not only all the leading works on the instruction of the deaf, but also the best works on all other subjects. The large park has many shady walks and fine play grounds; and one part is devoted to kitchen gardening and the raising of fruit, not only to supply the institution with the necessary vegetables and fruits, but also for giving the pupils an opportunity for acquiring a practical knowledge of gardening. The day of the opening seventy pupils entered the institution, but there is ample room for 100 or 120.—Blätter für Taubstummenbildung.

CAUSES OF DEAFNESS.

In his last report, Mr. F. Nordín, Director of the well known institution for the deaf at Venersborg, Sweden, has gathered statistics relative to the causes of deafness in 168 pupils. Thirty-five different causes were assigned, although in some cases the parents from whom the information was principally obtained, may have been mistaken. In 53 cases the cause was scarlet fever; in 7 scarlet fever combined with some other sickness, e. g., diphtheria; in 27 cases brain-fever; in 23 inflammation of the brain; in 4 cases some fright which scared the mother whilst bearing the child; measles were the cause in only 3 cases. Of 298 deaf, 128 were born deaf; 48 became so before reaching the age of 1; 46 between 2 and 3 years; 17 between 3 and 4; and 34 between 4 and 12. In 32 cases the parents were drunkards or given to other vices. During the last years deafness seems to have been on the decrease in most countries, doubtless owing to better hygienic conditions of life.—Tidning för Döfstumma.

STATISTICS OF THE DEAF IN GERMANY.

According to the Census of 1900, the number of deaf in the German Empire was 48,750. Of this number, 2,396 were in the kingdom of Saxony, grouped according to age as follows: up to the 5th year, 48; from 5 to 10, 214; from 10 to 15, 247; from 15 to 20, 249; from 20 to 30, 507; from 30 to 40, 437; from 40 to 50, 295; from 50 to 60, 213; above 60, 180; age not given, 6. In all ages—those above 60 however excluded—the number of deaf is larger among men than among women. In Saxony there are 570 deaf to one million inhabitants, in Baden 1,149, in Württemberg 1,029, in Prussia 912, and in Bavaria 889. Formerly, the statistics of the deaf were based on information furnished by the clergymen of the various parishes. The results were therefore often incomplete. At present the census takers also take careful statistics of the deaf.—Deutsche Taubstummen-Korrespondenz.

The following are the statistics of the institutions for the deaf in Prussia (German Empire) having a population of 34,472,509: Number of institutions: 45 of which one is maintained by the Royal Government, 3 by associations, 3 by private individuals, 3 by cities, 2 by legislatures, and 33 by provincial authorities. Number of teachers: 472; number of pupils: 4,187, viz., 2,318 boys and 1,869 girls; according to their religion: 2,588 were Protestants, 1,526 Catholics, and 73 Jews; 2,973 were day-pupils, and 1,214 boarders.—O. Danger in the Emden Zeitung.

BOOKS, PERIODICALS, AND REPORTS.

Laura Bridgman, Dr. Howe's Famous Pupil, and What He taught her, by Maud Howe and Florence Howe Hall. With illustrations by John Elliott. Boston: Little, Brown & Company, 1903. 12 mo. pp. 393.

This is for several reasons a timely book. The interest in the accomplishments of Helen Keller as set forth in the newspapers and magazines, and so effectively demonstrated in her autobiography, "The Story of My Life," which we are told was one of the best selling books of last year, has prepared the general public for an appreciative reading of this record of the first attempt in America to educate the deaf-blind. Students of pedagogics will be glad of the opportunity afforded them through Miss Keller's own book and this detailed and authoritative account of Laura Bridgman's life to make a close comparison of the methods employed and the results obtained with these two girls, each notable in her time as the most remarkable triumph of education over adverse natural conditions. The book will also be welcomed by those who have had their attention directed, by the recent centennial celebration of his birth, to the heroic figure of Samuel Gridley Howe, Laura's teacher and benefactor.

One cannot but admire the skill with which the authors have blended in their narrative the lives of Dr. Howe and his pupil. These two persons were antipodal in their characteristics. He was a great, strong, kingly man, gifted in mind, chivalric as a knight of the olden times, a lover of peace but a hero of battles, a philosopher, a scholar, a philanthropist with a heart that beat for all humanity, and the wisdom to plan and skill to execute measures that have ameliorated the condition of thousands. She was frail in body, deaf, dumb, blind, with but one of her senses fully alive, and, when all was done, but a child in mental development, her only possible service being "to stand

and wait." Dr. Howe was Laura's creator so far as her intellectual life was concerned. Without him she would never have been aught but the ignorant, helpless, unhappy creature he found in the little farm house among the New Hampshire hills. Under the circumstances it was difficult, on the one hand, to avoid making him so prominent in the narrative that Laura's personality would be obscured, or, on the other hand, omitting details that are essential to a complete understanding of the conditions of her education. The task must have been the more trying because of the relationship of the authors to Dr. Howe, but it has been performed with a tact and judgment that places the result beyond criticism. The literary style is far above the average of current biographical works, and this and the wise selection and arrangement of the subject matter and its sympathetic treatment, make the book most entertaining reading.

It was fortunate for the education of the defective classes in America that public policy in connection therewith should have been molded by such men as Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet and Samuel Gridley Howe, so that from the outset it reflected a liberality in marked contrast to the parsimony that still obtains in some European countries. It was in 1832 that Dr. Howe began the instruction of a few blind children in his father's house in Boston. His first appeals for support were to the general public, and these brought a generous response; but in 1833 he appeared before the legislature and, by a demonstration of what had already been accomplished with his pupils, secured an appropriation of six thousand dollars for the education and maintenance of twenty blind children—a per capita appropriation of three hundred dollars. This, and the earlier successes of Dr. Gallaudet in interesting legislative bodies, established a precedent that has been followed by all the states in the provisions made for the deaf, the blind, and other classes of children requiring special instruction, so that their education has always been considered not as a private charity but a duty of the commonwealth.

The liberal views Dr. Howe entertained regarding the purpose of these institutions and the plan on which he organized the one of which he had charge, have also exerted a far-reaching and beneficial influence. We are told that "He studied the intellect and character of each child to find out its talents and needs, and he finds as great a variety in his treatment of the different children as the variety of their natures and antecedents demanded. From the earliest days, it was one of his principles to teach the scholars to look upon themselves as active citizens of the commonwealth, and in every way to keep them in relation

with the events and questions of the day. * * * * We find the pupils celebrating the national holidays with patriotic speeches, and discussing political affairs with all the ardor and intelligence of youth." Elsewhere we read: "The romantic, ardent, character of the director dominated every teacher, every scholar, every domestic. The school was never a pedagogic retreat: it was a channel through which poured a stream of the World's life-current. Its visitors included the best people of Boston and the most intelligent of the European travellers." These extracts and many others that might be quoted go to prove that this first American school for the blind was never in any sense an asylum, but the highest type of an educational institution.

Dr. Howe had pondered over the question whether a deaf, dumb, and blind child could be educated. An attempt had already been made at the school for the deaf in Hartford with Julia Brace, not however with much success, owing probably to the advanced age at which she was admitted. Hearing through a resident of Hanover, New Hampshire, of Laura Bridgman, he visited that town and persuaded her parents to place her in his charge. She entered the Boston institution in the fall of 1837, and Dr. Howe at once set himself, with his usual energy and ingenuity, to the task of developing her intelligence and imparting an education by methods of his own devising. The means he employed and the results obtained are set forth very fully and clearly in copious extracts from his reports, which have served as a text book to all succeeding teachers of the deaf-blind.

Laura was a marvel in her day and generation, and it is no disparagement to Dr. Howe and her other teachers to say she never attained to the intelligence, culture, and knowledge that have made HelenKeller the most remarkable woman of her age now living, and that have, to a lesser but a still notable degree, been the results of the education of other deaf-blind children since her time.

With the deaf-blind, as with the deaf, their command of language is the best index of their advancement. Laura's vocabulary was not extensive nor employed with precision, and her compositions contain all the forms of error in grammar and rhetoric that are characteristic of the imperfectly educated deaf-mute. The range of her information appears to have been very limited, her ideas seldom rose above the commonplace, and she frequently, in mature life, exhibited an ingenuousness more appropriate in a child than a woman. Moreover, there was little aspiration after higher things. She was quite happy and contented in her daily round of homely household tasks, sewing,

mending, and arranging the rooms of which she had charge. So attached was she to the institution in which she had been reared that several attempts to withdraw her therefrom resulted in serious illness. Contrast this with Helen Keller's breadth of thought, her wealth of knowledge, the precision and beauty of expression that characterizes all her writings, the height of her ambitions and the vigor with which she assails and conquers all circumstances that hamper them.

No doubt the difference is partly due to inherited temperament. Laura was of quiet, sober-minded New England yeoman stock, whose chief characteristic is strength and which is often lacking in mobility. Helen is descended from a long line of scholars, and in her are united the force and vigor of her Massachusetts, and the warmth and adaptability of her Virginian ancestry. Add to this that Laura was a puny, sickly child while Helen was healthy and active above the average, and the variation in results with the two children is largely accounted for. Still these things do not explain the deficiencies of Laura's education so far as it was carried. The chief cause must lie in the circumstances and methods of her instruction.

Helen Keller has really had but one teacher. Others have assisted in her instruction, but practically all knowledge has reached her through the loving, unselfish woman who has devoted her life to her service and has had no interests aside from her. Laura had a number of teachers—Dr. Howe, Miss Drew, Miss Rogers, Miss Swift, Miss Wright—all of whom did the best for her of which they were capable, but to none of whom was she the sole and continuous object of thought and solicitude. Laura was educated by ingeniously contrived methods to suit her special needs; but the spirit of the method and the ends sought were the same as in the usual school training of deaf children. She was taught the names of things, to combine words into sentences, and later unfamiliar words were taught her by means of synonyms, with the usual faulty results in grammar and vocabulary, and limitations in knowledge. Helen's teacher aimed to draw out the child, to interest her, and when the desire for information was aroused, she imparted it to her in such a way that it was at once assimilated and became part of the texture of her mind. She talked to her, read to her, and was constantly at hand to serve as her medium of communication with the world about her. As a consequence, Helen grew, while Laura was made, and in one we have the harmonious perfection of a natural product, while the other, though a remarkable example of what can be accomplished by human skill and persistence, exhibits the inevitable crudities of an artificial system of training.

S. G. D.

Annual Report of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, for the year 1902-1903. Mt. Airy, Philadelphia.

Mr. Emlen Hutchinson, President of the Board of Directors of the Institution, at the close of his report, calls attention to the fact that among the more than five hundred pupils there has not been a single death, nor even a case of prolonged, serious illness. There was not a case of typhoid fever, pneumonia, diphtheria or even measles. This is the more remarkable in view of the fact that all these diseases and, in addition, small pox, were epidemic to a greater or less degree in the city of Philadelphia and neighborhood. It speaks volumes for the care exercised by those in charge of the school and for the faithfulness of its subordinate officers.

The statistical tables of the Superintendent's report show that there are represented among the pupils from outside Pennsylvania, the state of Delaware, Florida, California, Indiana, Ohio, Virginia, Washington, Indiana Territory, the Bahamas, Mexico, and Porto Rico.

Nearly 5 per cent. of the pupils were born deaf, and Dr. Crouter says that congenital deafness appears to be increasing, a condition due probably to improved medical treatment of diseases that may affect the hearing, so that there is a decrease in the percentage of pupils who become deaf from disease.

Of the 507 pupils 473, or nearly 93 per cent., are taught orally, and 34, or a little over 7 per cent., manually.

The following statement of Superintendent Crouter's opinion on the education of the Deaf in association with the hearing and on day schools will be of interest to the profession generally:

"Extravagant claims are not infrequently put forward regarding the possibilities of conducting the education of the deaf as a class in schools for the hearing as soon as speech and lip-reading have been acquired. Such rose-colored promises are very harmful, they excite expectations that in but few instances are realized, and create in the public mind very erroneous ideas upon the subject of the education of the deaf. That a small number of the deaf, those richly endowed by nature, may be so educated is not to be denied, but that the deaf as a class shall ever be successfully educated with the hearing in schools for the hearing is in the nature of things as improbable as it is imprac-

ticable. Since by nature or through disease these children form a special class in the community, it will ever be the part of wisdom to maintain special schools in which in general to secure their education. Such schools should be fostered by the community and generously supported by the State; none but the most approved methods and the best teachers should be employed, and none but the best appliances known to education should be provided. In schools so provided for and so maintained, the education of the deaf, as a class, along the best lines will ever be assured. Nor is it believed by conservative instructors of the deaf that the day school system now being introduced in some of our Western cities and states as a part of the public school system will ever prove the success claimed for it. In the end the system will be found expensive and disappointing in results. Ideally the plan appeals to the public and to parents, but practically it is weak and falls far short of promoting the best welfare of the deaf. It has its origin in large measure in the externat-internat system pursued in many of the German schools, but there is a very wide difference between them. In Germany the children are boarders (internats) until they are far enough advanced to profit by communication with outsiders when, as externats, they are placed in nearby families to be boarded and lodged, going back and forth to the school for instruction. The potent influence of the instructors and officers of the school is constantly maintained, there is no break in the work, the children are simply sent among neighboring hearing families to be boarded and lodged in the hope that the intercourse so established may prove helpful to their speech. From this, in many respects excellent system, the American day school system differs very essentially. With the latter there is complete cessation of the power and influence of the school the moment school hours are over. With American ideas of home life, its freedom and lack of restraint, pupils cannot well be followed to the home circle to be there influenced and restrained by the officers and teachers of a school. Parents will not suffer it, nor will they, except in rare instances, exert themselves in any manner to supplement the work of the class room."

Report of the School-Home for Blind-Deaf at Venersborg, Sweden, 1902-1903.

As this is the only existing school of the kind, we give a brief abstract of the report:

The school has been in active operation all the year around; intellectual instruction, however, has been given only during

thirty-six weeks, divided into a fall and spring term. The fall term commenced on the 1st of September, and closed on the 18th of December; and the spring term began on the 19th of January, and closed on the 6th of June. The mentally weak children are not able to stand intellectual work for any great length of time. Manual and intellectual instruction, therefore, alternate; but, in spite of this, it seems as if the children after several weeks of continuous instruction, become worn out, and have shorter or longer periods when they are impatient, and out of sorts, and difficult to manage. To remedy this evil as far as possible, the children were, whenever the weather permitted it, taken out for a walk of several hours. This appears to have an excellent influence on them; these little trips form the subject of their conversation, and they look forward to them with joyful anticipation. During the vacation they are for three hours a day instructed in manual and industrial work by special teachers of industrial instruction. The other teachers each take their turn, looking after the pupils during the vacation.

The order of the day on working days during the term is as follows: 6.30—7.30 A. M., getting up, washing, and dressing; 8 A. M., breakfast (gruel and bread and butter); 8.30, morning prayer; 8.30—10.30, instruction; 10.30—11 lunch (bread and milk); 11—11.50, exercises in the open air; 12—2 P. M., instruction; 2—2.30, dinner (two kinds of meat and bread); 12.30—3.50 exercises in the open air; 4—5.30 instruction; 5.30—5.40, light lunch (coffee on Sundays and holidays); 5.40—6.15, games, if the season permits, in the open air; 6.15—7, studying lessons, or some other useful occupation; 7, supper (oatmeal and milk); 7.30, evening prayer; 7.45, go to bed.

As will be seen from above, the daily instruction occupies five hours a day except on Wednesdays and Saturdays when there is no afternoon instruction. Intellectual instruction invariably alternated with manual instruction, and the maximum time devoted to each lesson was 25 minutes. Five minutes' rest were allowed between every two lessons. On Sundays short and suitable divine services were held. The time given by each pupil to the various subjects of instruction varied according to the capacity and condition, e. g., religion: 6 half hours per week; reading, 6 to 10; grammar, 6 to 16; spelling, 4; object lessons, 4 to 6; arithmetic, 6 to 10; geography, 2; Swedish history, 2; natural philosophy, 2; recitation, 2; preparatory exercises, 6 to 16; the pupils, of course, do not participate in instruction in one or the other of the above-mentioned subjects. Even during the free hours the older pupils are engaged in such useful occupations as they can follow by themselves, whilst the younger

ones, under the direction of the teachers, engage in games, kindergarten work, etc.

The number of pupils was 14, 5 boys and 9 girls; during the fall term 1 boy and 1 girl had to be dismissed as absolutely incapable of instruction; but during the same term 3 and the spring term 5, new pupils were admitted. The number of pupils has, therefore, during the year reached 20, of whom 3 boys and 4 girls were blind-deaf, and 6 boys and 7 girls blind, mentally weak, but hearing. Of the last mentioned 2 boys and 1 girl could not speak. Owing to the twofold defect of the pupils instruction in class can be given only in a few subjects. In the majority of cases each pupil had to be instructed separately; this applies likewise in most cases to the hearing pupils when their mental development varies. This requires of course a comparatively large force of teachers. The blind-deaf are invariably instructed each separately, and the blind mentally weak in several groups, 2 to 5 pupils in each. Of the pupils one was born in 1881, one in 1882, one in 1883, one in 1884, three in 1886, one in 1887, two in 1888, three in 1889, two in 1890, two in 1894, one in 1895, one in 1896, and one in 1897.

The teachers: The school is under the direction of Elizabeth Anrep-Nordin, who has been assisted in her arduous work by six teachers and two pupil-teachers. There are besides: one matron, a physician, an accountant, and three nurses. The school is in charge of a board of directors appointed by the Ministry of Public Instruction, composed of three prominent Government officials.

The report gives a brief history of each one of the twenty pupils, his or her antecedents, and what they accomplished during the year. The institution is a boarding school and both the pupils and teachers live in the home which is owned by the institution. They were cramped for room, however, and a house with a large yard and garden had to be rented. There is every prospect that the Swedish parliament will in the near future make a suitable appropriation for erecting a new and spacious building. The institution derives its revenue from payments for pupils, an annual government appropriation, and gifts from private individuals. To be admitted to the institution the child must bring certificates from the pastor of its parish and from the physician of the district. Pastors are for this purpose furnished with a question sheet, going very much into details as regards the child's family, and previous condition, which sheet must be carefully filled out. The age for admission is from 5 to 15 years. The annual expense of the pupil is 400 kronor ($117.20).

Report of the School for the Deaf, at Groningen, Holland, for the year 1902—1903. F. Roorda, Director.

The Groningen School for the Deaf is the oldest one of its kind in the Netherlands, having been founded in 1790, and in continuous operation since that time. It has educated 1,752 pupils in its 113 years of existence as a school. All grades of deaf pupils from those who are feeble-minded almost, to the brightest are admitted. Director Roorda deplores the fact that classification according to mental capacity as practised in Denmark is impossible in his country. The attendance is drawn from the whole country. This is a boarding school supported by voluntary contributions, bequests, legacies, subsidies and small sums annually from the state and from different provinces which happen to feel interested. There is no fixed source of income except from invested capital bequeathed to the school by persons interested in the education of the deaf. As a result of this state of affairs many improvements which are needed must wait till the money is offered by some one benevolently inclined.

During the year 1902-1903 there was an attendance of 178 pupils, of whom 22 were beginners. Of the 178 pupils the remarkably large number of 128 were born deaf; 21 others lost their hearing at age 1; and 10 others, at age 2. Board, tuition, clothing, and medical attendance are paid for by parents when able to do so, but it is not compulsory.

The following trades are taught: carpentry, cabinet-making, tailoring, shoe-making, printing, knitting, sewing, and embroidery. There are seventeen regular teachers, an art, or drawing teacher, one for the gymnasium, and a kindergarten teacher. The kindergarten class was instituted two years ago, and it has demonstrated its usefulness.

The methods are: Oral, for all capable of receiving instruction by it; manual (writing and spelling) for the remainder, 5 or 6, who are of a low grade of intelligence. There is an aural class whenever the number of pupils warrants instituting a class of this character. Mr. Roorda is well pleased with results obtained by this method when the pupils are not too hard of hearing, and have good intelligence. In this school there is a class of so called abnormal pupils composed of: 1, a hearing deaf boy, deaf from a blow on the head, taught orally; 2, three very dull pupils, taught manually; 3, two children with weak eyesight, taught orally; 4, a girl, very dull, but taught orally and making good progress; 5, a boy in school since last April who lost his hearing by sickness, but retains most of his speech.

The Sunday religious instruction is given by ordained ministers of different churches and every pupil has some church affiliation. Many are communicants.

The Director includes in his report an interesting account of his visit to the deaf schools at Fredericia, Nyborg, and Copenhagen, Denmark, made last spring.

Mr. Roorda speaks highly of the state of deaf-mute instruction in Denmark. He gives a very detailed account of the methods of instruction at Fredericia, which, he observes, are much like those used in Groningen. At Nyborg he spent 5 days visiting the school presided over by G. Forchammer.

Here he investigated the mannoral system, the reading in unison, and the phonoscope invented by Forchammer. Mr. Roorda says the latter instrument is not used much at Nyborg owing to its liability to derangement. Of the mannoral system Mr. Roorda says: "Whether the method of Mr. Forchammer is to be accepted generally by the schools for the deaf, time and results must demonstrate. There is no doubt, however, that the study of the method was very interesting and may be followed by important results in the education of the deaf."

He says further: "In the advanced classes regular textbooks are used and phonetic writing is seldom used, but the mannoral system is used whenever necessary."

"The most intelligent pupils in this school attain a liberal degree of culture, so they are enabled to pursue a more advanced course of study than obtains in most schools for the deaf."

Industrial training as we use the term here in the United States is not given at Fredericia, nor at Nyborg. The girls at these two schools learn to sew, but are not so far advanced as the girls in the school at Groningen where they are able to make dresses, etc.

Mr. Roorda gives a very full account of his visit at these two schools for the benefit of his readers in Holland, but the readers of the Association Review are already familiar with the work done at Fredericia and Nyborg, through published reviews of articles in Scandinavian journals and reports of these schools. It may be of interest to add Mr. Roorda's account of chapel exercises at Fredericia.

The chapel exercises on school days are conducted as follows:

1. An advanced pupil opens the exercises with an oral prayer.

2. A hymn is sung by the teachers and officers present to the accompaniment of the organ.

3. The exercises close with the Lord's Prayer by the same pupil who opened the meeting with prayer.

The chapel services on Sunday, from 10:15 to 11:15 A. M. are conducted by the director or his substitute, and are similar to the chapel exercises already given except that the leader offers a prayer and gives a simple talk orally on some religious subject. The children were required to read the lips of the speaker and seemed very much interested.

Discurso y Memoria relativos al ano escolar de 1902 a 1903 leidos en la solemne distribucion de premios a los alumnos del Colegio Nacional de sordomudos y de ciegos de Madrid [Speech and Report relating to the school-year 1902-1903, read on the important occasion of the distribution of prizes to the pupils of the National College for the Deaf and Blind at Madrid]. Madrid, Imprenta del Colegio Nacional de sordomudos y de ciegos, 1903.

Upon the occasion of the distribution of prizes to the pupils of the National Institution for the Deaf and the Blind at Madrid, Pedro Molina, one of the teachers, delivered a speech on the material and moral condition of that Institution. This speech was printed as a preface to the Annual Report of the school-year 1902-1903.

From that speech we learn that during the past year the number of pupils was 151 (101 deaf and 50 blind). As in every Latin country deaf boys can engage in many and various kinds of business in Spain, but it is quite impossible for deaf girls to do so, and they are obliged to devote themselves almost exclusively to housekeeping. Hence in the arrangement of the National Institution of Madrid the time for technical teaching of the girls is devoted to the art of housekeeping.

The complaint is renewed, like a hackneyed phrase, that Spain does not help the deaf in such a manner as to be worthy of her history in regard to this branch of special education. Too many deaf are daily turned away from the doors of the school, for lack of financial means. This, Molina observes, is in contradiction with the word "National" which is displayed in its title.

According to the most recent statistics, 10,880 deaf and 25,000 blind exist in Spain, but the state gives an education to only a small percentage of these unfortunate creatures. In order to remedy such an unhappy condition the Minister of Public Instruction recently resolved to increase the number of pupils

in the government school, but frequent political changes have been the principal cause of the delay in the practical execution of the provisions made by the government in favor of the deaf and blind children. Fortunately the various provincial administrations have come to the aid of these children, but their efforts do not meet the needs of the situation in any part of Spain.

Mr. Molina speaks at length of the unhappy condition, both physically and morally, of the deaf and blind, as he wishes as much as possible to increase the knowledge of their miserable state in order that they shall no longer be neglected, but shall receive an education. He urges the necessity of organizing special schools and of a suitable education such as will place the deaf and blind in a condition of independence on leaving school.

Also the training school for teachers of the deaf does not give the desired results for the reasons mentioned above.

The curriculums of the school show that the efforts of the principal and teachers are directed to realizing the highest ideals of modern pedagogy. The various branches of education are given as follows:

For the blind: physical education; literature and science; music; manual and industrial training. For the deaf: physical, moral, and religious education; oral teaching; literary, scientific, and artistic education; manual and industrial training.

Everyday English, Book Two, Language Lessons for Grammar Grades. By Jean Sherwood Rankin. Educational Publishing Co., 1903.

Book One of this series was reviewed in THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW of December, 1902. So far as the education of the Deaf is concerned, this volume is valuable chiefly as a source of inspiration and helpful suggestions for the teacher: it would hardly serve as a text-book for pupils. But it is for the teacher rather than the pupil that all such books should be written. This, we believe, applies to the instruction of hearing as well as deaf children. A careful reading of this work cannot fail to create in the ordinary instructor in English higher ideals, and to impart greater power of interesting his pupils in the subject. It aims to draw out rather than to inject knowledge, and to develop a consciousness of correct expression that will give the mastery of language which, in great writers, is generally regarded as intuitive and a mark of genius, but which is really the result of study and assimilation of the principles of form and style by much the same processes as are here indicated.

American Annals of the Deaf. March, 1904. Washington, D. C.

This number presents the following table of contents: "Class Government," by George M. Teegarden; "The First Training and Instruction of the Deaf-Blind," by Mrs. E. M. Barrett; "Edith's First Two Years at School," by Theodore A. Kiesel; "The Wisconsin Round Table," by Paul Lange; "The Sixth Congress of German Instructors," by Paul Lange; "Pupils' Parties and Social Gatherings," by Pearl Cole; "Mistakes of Mine," anonymous; "The Training of a Congenitally Deaf-Blind Child," by Minnie E. Morris; "Why Methods Fail," from The Teacher of the Deaf; "Congenital Deafness in Animals," by C. Chaveau; "Deafness and Cheerfulness," by Rev. A. W. Jackson; Notices of the Exhibition of Schools for the Deaf at the St. Louis Exposition, and of the Conference of Superintendents and Principals; reviews and school items.

L'Educazione dei sordomuti [The Education of the Deaf], edited by G. Ferreri, Nos. 1, 2, 3, January, February, and March, 1904.

Contents: I. "An Article of Helen Keller: My future as I see it," translated from the Ladies' Home Journal (November, 1903); "The Laws of Physiology and Psychology on the formation of movement and the instruction of the Deaf," by Dr. G. Gude, translated into Italian by Prof. P. Fornari; "The Shortest Way in the School of Articulation," by T. Mannelli; "Meetings and Congresses: The Teachers of the Deaf at Frankfurt-on-the-Main." Among Reviews and Pamphlets. Reports. Editorial comments. Summaries of Reviews.

II. "The Government and the Deaf," an extract from the Acts of Parliament; "The reforms of our Institutions and especially that of the State school of Milan," by P. Fornari; "Dictation in the Schools for the Deaf," by T. Mannelli; "The Deaf Son of Croesus in Greek Literature and in an Italian Work of Art." Bibliography. Among Pamphlets and Reviews. Reports. Editorial comments.

III. "The Crisis of Our Special Press and the Resources of the Future," by T. Mannelli; "The Laws of Physiology and Psychology, etc."; "The Imperfections of Speech and Oral instruction of the Deaf," by G. Ferreri; "The Deaf Son of Croesus," with illustrations. Meetings and Congresses. The Teachers of the Deaf at Stockholm. Bibliography. Among Reviews and Pamphlets. Reports and Summaries.

Rassegna della Educazione dei Sordomuti [Review of the Education of the Deaf], edited by Prof. E. Scuri. Nos. 9-12, September-December, 1903.

The contents of this number, which completes the tenth year of the Review of Naples, are: "The *escamotage* of Politics and the Cause of the Deaf," by E. Scuri; "Discontent," by T. Mannelli; "On the Union of the Teachers," by E. Moro; "The Imperfections of Speech and Oral Teaching of the Deaf," by G. Ferreri; "An Open Letter to the Minister of Public Instruction about the Normal School '*Girolamo Cardano,*'" by P. Fornari; "*A'propos* of American Institutions," by T. Mannelli; "The Shortest Way in the School of Articulation," by V. Lucatelli. Among the books. Editorial comments.

Klange ans stiller Welt [Songs from the silent world] by Eugene Sutermeister, Zurich, 1901.

This beautifully gotten-up volume of 208 pages embellished by the portrait of the author, contains 152 poems by the well known Swiss writer for the deaf, Mr. Eugene Sutermeister, recently appointed preacher to the deaf in the Canton of Berne. Even a cursory persual of this volume will convince the reader that Mr. Sutermeister is a true poet who sings from his heart, like the bird in the forest which cannot be silent because he is overflowing with melody. Poems like "The Dying Deaf Mute," "The Most Beautiful Pearl," and others, are full of the deepest pathos, whilst others reveal a true sense of humor. All the poems relate more or less to the deaf, their feelings, their hopes, and aspirations, their walk through life, and their final going home to that world where all defects, all sufferings, shall be done away with. We highly recommend this book to all deaf persons who have a knowledge of German.

Wie sagst du? [What do you say?]. A text-book for the teaching of language, by M. Koller, Principal of the Institution for the Deaf at Munich (Bavaria).

With this nicely printed book M. Koller continues his work in providing the German schools for the Deaf with the most suitable text-books. Mr. Koller compiles his practical books from tested lessons and hence from object-teaching. This book contains only language concerning the human body, its needs, maladies, and care. Each exercise repeats occasional and familiar language according to the various circumstances of life.

Erdkunde fur osterreichische Taubstummenschulen. Bearbeitet von Karl Baldrian und Heinrich Kolar, Taubstummenlehrer in Wien (Döbling und Neustadt respect.) Wien, im Kaiserlich-Königlichen Schulbücher-Verlage, 1904. [Geography for the Austrian schools for the Deaf, compiled by K. Baldrian and H. Kolar, teachers of the Deaf in the Institution of Döbling and Newstadt-Wien].

This fine volume will be most suitable for the teaching of Geography. It was prepared by two teachers of the Deaf. The greater part of the contents concerns, of course, the Austrian-Ungarisch Empire, but all necessary information is given about other parts of the world. Useful information in regard to commerce, industries, and mutual and international relations are given in each of the seven chapters of this geographical work. Two other chapters, the last two, are dedicated to the elements of cosmography, and are a good complement to the work, prepared with the intention of giving an elementary knowledge of natural phenomena to the pupils.

Istituto Nazionale dei sordomuti in Firenze [Institution for the Deaf in Florence], by Prof. F. Mangioni, Principal, Firenze, 1904.

Prof. F. Mangioni, the Principal of the National Institution for the Deaf at Florence, adds to the list of valuable publications on the Deaf a useful pamphlet which explains in a popular form what are the means for the formation of character, for physical development, and for the intellectual culture of deaf children. The pamphlet contains beside this the school programs and the rules for the admission to the Florentine school as an Institution and Day-school.

Auszug aus den Bericht uber die funfte nordische Versammlung fur Angelegenheiten der Taubstummen und der Schwachsinnigen in Stockholm am 6. bis 10. July, 1903. [Extract from the Report on the Fifth Northern Congress for the Cause of the Deaf in Stockholm, July 6-10, 1903]. Von H. Stelling, Emden.

Mr. Stelling was present as a guest at the Congress of the Scandinavian educators held at Stockholm from the 6th to the 10th of July, 1903. His account of the Congress, already published in the official newspaper, "Zentralblatt für die gesamte Unterrichtsverwaltung in Preussen" (Jahrgan, 1903, N. 12), has been reprinted under the title given above.

"La premire education du Sourd-muet" [The first education of the deaf], by Edauard Dranot, Professor at the National Institution for the Deaf at Paris.

An admirable little pamphlet of 57 pages, chiefly devoted to the education of deaf children in the family and the primary school, giving excellent counsel to parents and teachers.

Schwerhorige, Ertaubte und Taubstumme [Persons hard of hearing, deaf, and deaf-mutes], by G. Riemunn, teacher of the deaf at Berlin; 3d edition, 1903.

This little work of 63 pages is thoroughly practical in character, intended for everyday life and its needs, and contains a great deal of sound advice for deaf people and their families.

Reports received.

Report of the Institution at Rotterdam, 50th year, 1902-1903. Number of pupils: 141—84 boys and 57 girls.

Report (the 15th) of the Association Effata Dwdrecht. The number of pupils in the Institution maintained by this Association was 22.

Report, for 1902, of the Hamburg Institution for the deaf:

Eightieth Annual report of the institution for the deaf, and the home for adult deaf, at Winnenden, Germany. Number of pupils 32, viz., 15 boys and 17 girls. Home for adult deaf: inmates 22, viz., 11 men and 11 women.

Sixth annual report of the West Australian Deaf and Dumb Institution at Cottesloe Beach, West Australia. Number of pupils 32, viz., 24 girls and 8 boys.

Forty-Sixth Annual Report of the Halifax, Nova Scotia, Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, 1903. Mr. Fearon says: "From year to year a large number of pupils are being brought under the oral method, and more encouraging results obtained."

Report (Twenty-Seventh Annual) of the South Australian Institution for the Blind and Deaf and Dumb at Brighton.

Thirteenth Biennial Report (34th and 35th Annual) of the President and Visitors of the Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb to the Legislature of Maryland, Frederick, Md., 1903.

Thirty-eight Report of the Board of Trustees and Officers of the Georgia School for the Deaf at Cave Spring, Ga. 1903.

Thirty-second Annual Report of the Ontario Institution at Belleville, 1903.

THE INSTITUTION PRESS.

WHAT IS BEST FOR THE CHILD?

In a recent article in the Deaf Carolinian, entitled "A Plea for the Children," objection was made to the use of spelling in chapel because of the "concentration of mind necessary at the loss of all enthusiasm and inspiration." Does not the same objection hold good in the school-room where instruction is given in spelling? In the one case it is applied to religious instruction or subjects, and in the latter to history, geography, etc. Concentration of mind in learning rather increases enthusiasm and inspiration. The latter come with success in any undertaking and success is the result of the most complete application of our mental powers.

The English language must be the vehicle of religious thought for our pupils through life after leaving school, as it is for hearing persons. The pupils should early learn to lean upon it as a source of information to them and for this reason it should be used on every opportunity.

Some value signs as they afford a means of giving information to pupils before they know enough English to make use of it for this purpose. I see no great gain in an inordinate haste to give pupils instruction (knowledge) through signs, so far in advance of their ability to use and understand English. In the case of the hearing child we expect and are willing to wait some years before the child can comprehend or appreciate much of the moral instruction that he receives.

In regard to the story of David and Goliath, I do not think that you can teach by that story, told in signs, "the superiority of mind, strengthened by faith, over brute force." The story *as told in signs* is chiefly interesting because it is the description of a fight in which the best man comes out ahead. The superiority of the sling over the sword, in this case, is made apparent but the subtle teaching of faith fails to come in.

After all, moral growth comes more from example than from precept. It comes from the influence of those with whom we associate, from the reading of good books, from the development of a taste for the best things of life, and also from a famil-

iarity with those moral axioms which are found in Bible language and repeated and read frequently in chapel and church services.

It is not necessary that every child should understand every thing that is said to him, that he be benefited. The benefit of chapel service is not to be measured by the amount that a child is able to reproduce of what is told in chapel. Apply the same test to services for the hearing and no better results would be obtained.

Besides the child that is interested is not *always* the most benefited. The story of David and Goliath may be interesting, but it is not of as much benefit to the pupil as if he had spelled to him some of the beautiful and often simple passages of scripture with which we are all familiar and which we are accustomed to hear read in church and repeated frequently in other places.

It is impossible that young learners should understand or be enthusiastically interested in all that is said in a service. An article entitled, "The Sunday School," in a recent magazine, states that the pupils in the infant class sang: "Pass the washrag along," while the older ones sang, "Pass the watchword along."

We would not for one moment think of "compelling all of the children to receive the greater part of their religious instruction by an exercise lasting from ten to twenty minutes." In the chapel where all ages and all grades come together we do not find the best conditions for religious instruction. That can best be accomplished by the teacher at the weekly Sunday School, where there are few together and all of the same grade. It is just as futile to give much religious instruction en masse as to teach arithmetic, history, or other branches of study in the same way. The idea of chapel should be a service made as much like that of the hearing as possible.

It is asked, "Are the chapel exercises intended to teach English?" They should be so considered so far as they afford an opportunity for pupils to make a practical use of their knowledge of language. Chapel exercises when spelled would emphasize most strongly the value and importance of an understanding of English. Of course the chapel is intended principally as a place where religious services are held at which the pupils are taught reverence, piety, and a knowledge of religious matters.

It is not a fair comparison, that of the hearing attending a service in which the minister spelled out each word letter by letter. Of course a person who can hear would not be satisfied with any other means of communication than that of speech; no more than those who see would endure reading by means of the raised letters of the blind.

The question is, what best compensates for the loss of the sense of hearing. The pupil that knows his English gets as much of Evangeline when spelled to him as when he reads it, and those pupils who do not understand it can afford to wait, meanwhile spending their time in reading those things that are within their grasp.

Of course the deaf can learn two languages, as we learn two or more, but, is it expedient? We would not think it a good plan to learn French or German in order by means of it to learn another language, and then throw it aside as signs are thrown aside when a pupil leaves school. But, today, the most efficient way to learn French or German is the one that eliminates for the time any other language. The idea is that success depends upon the amount of practice that the learner has.

It has been suggested that the deaf were not so happy when deprived of signs. If the deaf cannot be made happy in the Institution without signs, how can they be happy at their homes where none of their acquaintances communicate to them in any other way than in English?

To be sure "every child has the inalienable right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." But the child is not always the best judge as to what will secure to him the greatest amount of liberty and happiness. Liberty and opportunities for happiness increase with the education of the individual. The lower we go in the intellectual scale the less becomes the liberty of the individual. The intellectual abilities of the savage are so proscribed that he can in many cases exercise but little more liberty than the animal creation. We would prefer to measure liberty and happiness by the number of useful things that we are able to do and the amount of mental development.—E. G. H. in The Deaf Carolinian, (N. C.)

THE SECRET TO IMPROVEMENT IN LANGUAGE ITS HABITUAL USE.

The teaching of language to the deaf is one of the great problems of our profession. It has long been a great problem—one that has often been discussed by many of our ablest educators. And it will continue to be discussed as long as the work of educating the deaf goes on. But it seems that there will never be any great improvement in the language of deaf children until they come to *habitually use it*—by spelling, writing, speaking it; by thinking in it; by making it their own; and by so reading that what is read is understood and enjoyed.

If our school appropriations were large enough to warrant the employment of a single teacher for very small classes—no more than five children in any one class—there could be much more individual instruction than most deaf children are now receiving. And after the first four years of thorough primary training the children ought to have a vocabulary large enough to allow the making of *English* the chief means of instruction thereafter. Then, with text-books suited to the ability of each class, courses in graded reading, and language work adapted to each grade, would it not be possible that more of our children would be able to express their ideas in better language? And, if such classes, throughout the entire school course, are kept as evenly graded as it is possible to keep them, would not the mental, as well as the moral, development of the children be greater? —The Michigan Mirror.

The Mirror goes pretty near the root of the matter in regard to language teaching, when it says in effect that the best devices will fall far short of accomplishing what is expected of them until the deaf use language habitually in speaking, spelling, or writing. I have thought so for years and see proofs of it every day not only among pupils but in letters from those who have left school. Teachers of the deaf must begin from the start to inculcate this habit and with the usual forms of language used by children from infancy. Of course the deaf child will not learn as fast as the hearing one and for reasons that are clear enough. So there will have to be a great deal of patient practice, but it will pay in the long run many times over. I have noticed that even the so-called dull pupil, if persistently communicated with in language to suit his capacity, will gradually catch on.—W. R. in the Wisconsin Times.

ENGLISH AS SHE IS TAUGHT.

From the Children's Page of one of the school papers, we take the following question and answer:—

"QUES.—What does a cat have on the bottom of its feet?"

"ANS.—Cushions are under a cat's feet."

We do not know whether the teacher allowed this answer to stand as good English. Probably not, but we have known, and know, teachers who would pass the answer as correct, and therefore we have taken it as the text for a few remarks.

"Cushions are under a cat's feet."

"Books are on the table."

"Dirt is on the floor."

Such sentences as the above are not only passed as correct, but are actually taught to deaf children. Especially are they common in the beginnings of picture description. Now, let me ask any intelligent teacher if he or she went about in educated society, talking like that, would not people smile and wonder? People don't talk that way in common, every-day life. But it is just the common, every-day language that our deaf boys and girls want to learn. The sentences cited above are grammatically correct, but the true teacher will not allow sentences to pass for that reason alone, lest the pupils be confirmed in an awkward and unidiomatic form of expression. The English idiom "There is" or "There are," relieves such sentences of their stiffness. Why should it not be taught from the first, instead of the other form, in which the pupils become so confirmed that it is hard to change it later? We know of a class of second-year pupils who took to "There is" and "There are" like ducks to water, and used those forms readily and correctly throughout the year.

The more extended our experience, and the further our observation goes, the more do we become convinced that one important reason why the deaf used stilted and unidiomatic English is that it is just what their teachers teach them. A normal training school to instruct teachers of the deaf how to teach idiomatic English, wouldn't be a bad thing.—The Companion (Minn.)

All teachers of the deaf know, or should know, that the teaching of language to the deaf is one of the great problems of the profession. But, realizing that fact, do we not forget sometimes that there are other problems demanding our attention? Can we not give more attention to arithmetic? We have four and five slate systems and "sight rules" for instruction in language. Why can we not have some uniform "sight rules" for the teaching of different operations in arithmetic?—Missouri Record.

The so-called compulsory law, requiring the education of all deaf and dumb children in the state, has passed both houses of the Legislature. It is to be hoped that this law will have a salutary effect, putting many children in reach of an education who are now deprived of it.—Maryland Bulletin.

EDITORIAL COMMENT.

THE IDA MONTGOMERY TESTIMONIAL.

A fund established by the children of the late Benjamin R. Winthrop, for many years a director of the New York Institution for the Deaf (the Fanwood School), will, according to its present income, provide a prize of $100 which is to be presented annually to the pupil exhibiting the greatest excellence "in studies, character and manual skill." It is to be known as the Ida Montgomery Testimonial, after a lady who graduated from the school and was for many years a successful teacher there. It cannot be awarded to any pupil who lost his hearing after he was fifteen years old, and if in any year no one is considered worthy of it, the income is to be added to the fund, or applied to the improvement of trade instruction.

The New York Institution is to be congratulated upon being able to offer its pupils such a liberal inducement to exert themselves in their studies and to profit by the instruction given them. The prize will naturally fall to one of the brighter children, but it is often these who stand most in need of incentives. The slow-minded, plodding child generally does the best of which he is capable, and it is upon him that the teacher concentrates his efforts, to bring him up to the level of the class in which he may belong. The brilliant pupil, who learns quickly and with little exertion, too often falls short of his highest possible attainments in character and knowledge, because the teacher is satisfied if his record is good and, in anxiety for less capable children, does not consider whether he might not do much better.

The pupil who loves learning for learning's sake, or will devote himself to it for the advantage it will be to him at some distant day, is a rare bird anywhere, and particularly so in schools for the deaf. Hearing children are stimulated and encouraged

by the interest in their improvement shown by relatives and friends; the standard set before them is higher than in our schools; and there is keener rivalry because of the greater number of bright minds with which they are brought into competition. Moreover the prizes that life offers to the well educated hearing person are much greater and far more numerous than the deaf may hope to win. That our pupils realize this fact and are often discouraged by it no teacher who is on familiar terms with them can doubt. It is to be hoped that the great and immediate reward for effort that is offered by the New York Institution will excite in the brighter scholars a rivalry that will result in their own advancement and, by elevating the standard, react in great improvement throughout the school. The fact that the testimonial is named after a deaf woman who, as a pupil, was distinguished for her scholarship and, in adult life, for her usefulness and the nobility and sweetness of her character, should be an encouragement and an incentive to every pupil, whether or not he may hope to win it. S. G. D.

THE ACOUSTICON.

It has been my privilege to attend and report verbatim three tests made with the acousticon upon pupils of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. In these tests fourteen pupils, representatives of the different conditions of deafness and partial hearing found in the Institution, were employed. Of the fourteen, one, and perhaps two, were born deaf; three were born with impaired hearing; and nine lost their hearing by disease. At present, one is totally deaf; three recognize impulses but not sounds and may be classed as totally deaf; six recognize simple words and sentences, the ear having been trained to do so in almost every case; and four understand ordinary language when spoken within the range of their hearing. With the acousticon the four classified as totally deaf heard nothing at all. The supposed hearing in these cases was nothing more than the perception of vibration, and every word recognized through the acousticon was also recognized just as readily by everyone of the four when it was spoken against a sheet of paper held tightly

between the hands. Three of those trained to recognize words and simple sentences heard less with the instrument than without it. One, recognizing words, and one, understanding language, heard the same with as without. Two, recognizing words, and three, understanding language, showed marked improvement, the range of their hearing being considerably increased by the use of the instrument. The inferences drawn from these tests are that those who can not be reached by the human voice or the ordinary means for training hearing employed in our institutions, can not be helped by the acousticon; that some of those having partial hearing either are not helped at all or are actually hindered by it; while others derive benefit from its use. Whether or not the instrument will prove useful can be determined only by a careful test of the individual case. Of course impromptu tests, like those summarized above, where the apparatus is not adjusted to the case in hand, are a poor basis upon which to praise or condemn the acousticon. If those teachers who have given it a practical trial in their daily work would report upon the results they have obtained, the value of the instrument would be better understood. EDWIN STANLEY THOMPSON.

THE SACRAMENTO, CALIFORNIA, DAY SCHOOL.

A day school for the deaf was established in Sacramento, California, January, 1904. This is the first school to be established under California's new state law providing for the maintenance of these classes for the deaf in connection with the public school system. (Section 1618, Political Code.)

Previous to the passage of this bill there were day schools at San Francisco, Los Angeles, and Oakland, and it was owing much to their recognized value and success that the last state legislature passed this bill. Already San Jose, Fresno, and Stockton are preparing to open schools under the law. And the law makes it compulsory that instruction in all these day schools be purely oral.

The Sacramento school is in charge of Miss Ray Kribs, former principal of the school for the deaf at Sheboygan, Wisconsin, and has a regular attendance of six pupils, five girls and

one boy, ranging from eight to twelve years of age. The school is most delightfully situated, in a large pleasant room, in the new Marshall School, and the children have already made fast friends with the grade pupils. Besides the regular branches, the pupils are taught sewing, knife-work, and basketry. H. R. K.

REV. JOHN G. BROWN, D.D.

Rev. John G. Brown, founder of the Western Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and president of its Board of Trustees, died on March 4th, aged 70. Dr. Brown secured from the Legislature an appropriation for the opening of the school in a rented building at Turtle Creek in 1876, and he raised the funds for the erection of the buildings at Edgewood Park to which it was removed in 1884. From 1885-89 he was the principal. When the main building was destroyed by fire in 1898, notwithstanding his age and feeble health, he took the lead in the efforts to retrieve the disaster, which resulted in the erection of one of the finest and best appointed institutions in the country. In addition to his work for the Deaf, he was one of the organizers of the Bellefield School for the Blind, and a Trustee of the Pennsylvania College for Women. For twenty-five years he served as pastor of the Third United Presbyterian Church in Pittsburg, and he was for eight years Secretary of the Board of Home Missions.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS AND NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF THE DEAF.

An International Congress and the National Association of the Deaf of the United States are called to meet in one of the halls in the Hall of Congress at the St. Louis Exposition, August 20th to the 27. The arrangements are in charge of a committee consisting of James L. Smith, Faribault, Minn., Chairman; T. F. Fox, New York, and G. W. Veditz, Colorado Springs, Col. The programme, as at present outlined, will consist of the presentation of the following papers: By Prof. A. G. Draper, Gallaudet College, Washington, D C., "The Education of the Deaf in the United States," by Mr. Olof. Hanson, Seattle, Wash., "The In-

dustrial Problem among the American Deaf;" by Thomas F. Fox, New York, "The Social Status of the Deaf"; by Rev. Philip J. Hasenstab, Chicago, "The Moral and Religious Status of the Deaf." Papers will also be solicited from foreigners attending the Congress. Rev. J. H. Cloud, 2606 Virginia Avenue, St. Louis, is in charge of local arrangements.

A SUMMER TRAINING COURSE.

A course of lessons on the mechanism of speech, on the correction of defective speech, and on speech development and voice-training for deaf children, will be given during the month of July, 1904, in Boston, by Mrs. Sarah Jordan Monro, special teacher of speech in the Horace Mann School for the Deaf. For further information address,

MRS. SARAH JORDAN MONRO,
Room 47, Pierce Building, Boston, Mass.

WANTED: A position in a school for the deaf as Matron's Assistant, by a person experienced in teaching the deaf. Address X, care of THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW.

WANTED: A position in a school, or private deaf pupils, by an oral teacher of long, varied, and successful experience. Address Q, care of THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW.

Reprints in pamphlet form of the papers on "Formation and Development of Elementary English Sounds," by Caroline A. Yale, may be obtained by addressing the office of the General Secretary. Price for single copies, 25 cents.

Reprints in pamphlet form of "My List of Homophenous Words," by Emma Snow, may be obtained through the office of the General Secretary. Price for single copies, 25 cents.

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HUNGARIAN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE DEAF.[1]

Former centuries did not engage much in charitable matters. There were only a few sporadic attempts at relief, which were confined to some of the capital cities and were without much influence upon the general welfare of the needy and afflicted. There was an Institution for the Deaf and Dumb established in Vienna, Austria, at about the beginning of the eighteenth century. According to olden inexperienced times this was only done in a comparatively superificial way, but still it was a benevolent beginning, and in the course of time it prospered, the different classes being gradually improved until about the latter part of the eighteenth century it was in good working order.

About this time, that is around the 1780's, it happened that a traveller of Hungary was sojourning in Vienna, and among other things this Institution for the Deaf engaged very much his attention. This man was Andreas Cházár de Iolész, a citizen of Hungary and a lawyer by profession.

Arriving at home and being much impressed by the Vienna Institution, it took him not long with his patriotic, benevolent and charitable nature, to make up his mind to establish some kind of an elementary institution on this line. For this purpose, to begin with, he proffered his house and adjacent garden at Rozsnyo, Hungary, and some money as a nucleus for an Insti-

[1]Institutions for the Deaf and Dumb, their instruction, history sustenance, and classification with regard to their sex, aptitude, and preliminary qualification, in the kingdom of Hungary, from the beginning up to the present time.

tution for the Deaf. This being done, Andreas Cházár put all his soul into developing his humanitarian undertaking, and soon, at his instigation, a similar but more practical and substantial institution was established by the Hungarian government at Vacz, near Budapest, and, in the year of 1802, was opened for use.

By and by more establishments of this kind sprang up, subsidized by the government or by public charity or both, and Hungary has at the present time many good and well equipped institutions for the deaf, and also two for the blind. These establishments are located in the following places:

One Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Temesvar; one Deaf and Dumb Institution at Arad; one Deaf and Dumb Institution at Kaposvar; one Deaf and Dumb and Blind Institution at Szeged; one Deaf and Dumb and Blind Institution at Iolsva; The above mentioned establishments are all under the control and management of their local authorities and supported by their city government and charity organizations. Then there are three more institutions entirely supported by the Royal Hungarian Government, of course at the cost of the public treasury: They are the Royal Hungarian Deaf and Dumb Institution, with their new building at Vacz; the Royal Hungarian Institution for Deaf and Dumb at Kolosvar, and the Royal Hungarian Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Budapest. All these establishments are under the direct surveillance of the Royal Hungarian Minister of Culture and Instruction.

Every institution is governed by a competent director, assisted by well trained teachers: The institutions are open to all children regardless of religion: Instruction is in Hungarian or German, or in both languages.

The children are instructed in all modern branches, especially in reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, sketching, athletics; and girls also in different kinds of needlework.

The school term begins at all establishments on the first of September every year and ends at the end of June. There is no admittance during the school year. If a beginner that is in the first class is kept out by sickness, he may enter, but not later

than October 15th, on a medical certificate. All children of sound health between the years of seven and ten, without regard to sex, nationality, or religion, are admitted. If later on it should appear that a child suffers with any periodical or incurable sickness, or mental or physical feebleness, incapacitating him for regular instruction, he will be excluded. The children are either boarders or day-pupils. Boarders either pay for their board and lodging, or are maintained on some charitable endowment. The tuition, everything included, is per school year 600 krowns, about $150, which is to be paid half-yearly in advance. Boarders of both classes enjoy all and the same privileges. Outside pupils have to be provided with their books and utensils by their own people.

Admittance to a Royal Institution can only be procured on application to the Royal Hungarian Minister for Culture and Instruction.

Boarders are provided with everything, with garments as well as all kinds of school supplies, and in case of sickness, with proper medical attendance free of any charge. Outside pupils can claim only instruction. For the moral and social conduct of outside pupils their parents or tutors are held responsible. Applications for admittance to a royal establishment have to be made by parents or tutors before the first of May each year.

Christmas holidays begin on December 23 and end on January 2.

Parents and tutors are informed every month of their child's health, conduct and progress by the school authorities.

Education of Pupils and their Instruction.

When the institution at Vacz near Budapest was opened in 1802, the instruction of the deaf all over Europe was very poor: only one or two institutions were known abroad, hardly any man occupied his mind with the thought of how to instruct or help the unfortunate Deaf, to say nothing of the poor Blind. The form of instruction was in the early stages of a meagre development, and it said that there were as many methods as there were teachers engaged in the work, though in a general way two chief forms developed, and singularly enough very opposite to each

other. One was the French, the other one the German form. At the time when, in 1779, the Vienna Institution was opened, only teachers were engaged there who got their training for instruction of the Deaf in Paris, and as the first president, Josef May, of this new Vienna Institution was one of the Paris scholars, it was quite natural that the whole form of instruction was under a French spell, which proved very detrimental to the whole practical form of proceedings. Still looking to the nearest, apparently most successful institution in Vienna, the Hungarian government decided to adopt the German form of teaching, at least for the beginning, and until something better developed. Anton Simon, the first director of the first Hungarian Royal Deaf-Mute Institution, with his two assistants, Anton Schwarczer, and Samuel Kapwary and some minor teachers, proceeded entirely on the system of the Vienna school, according to which the pupils after all had to learn writing and reading, as well as the articulation or sound expression of the words.

This kind of teaching produced but very poor results, and as the first Director, Anton Simon, died about this time, on the 30th of August, 1808, Anton Schwarczer was appointed his successor as director of the Deaf-Mute Institution at Vacz.

This change of administration was quite a new chapter in the life of the institution, and by many practical new methods produced very beneficial effects all around. He died in 1834, leaving some very valuable writings about the education of the deaf, and some of his works are still appreciated and used.

The successor of Anton Schwarczer as director of the institution was Leopold Nagy. The next was Anton Kollonits who from his entrance in 1845 conducted his office with great success until his death on November 21, 1855, when the newly appointed Michael Zsigonondovits succeeded him.

From the beginning of this deaf-mute institution up to this time, except for the periodical improvements in some of the teaching forms, there has been but little change in a general way in conducting the administration of the establishment and the education of the children. Everything proceeded in a prosperous, healthy progressive way, until a growing sentiment appeared against the double instruction of the deaf-mutes in the Hun-

garian and German languages. It was stated that the Hungarian language in its expression is too harsh and single words not rounded enough to be useful and practically applicable for the best form of language with the deaf.

In the year of 1866, when Michael Zsigonondovits, the director of the establishment at Vacz at that time, went to Vienna to attend the meeting of the Directors of the Austrian Institutions, it was expected that the clear German form of instruction would be introduced also in Hungary, but to the great disappointment of everybody, when the director came home, it had been determined to keep up the old form of instruction. This went on until 1873, when Charles Fekete, the sixth director of the institution, began the movement to abolish the old-fashioned sign language and to introduce the German mode of instruction, that is, by speech, the main attention being directed to the reading of the lip-movements, which makes the pupil more apt for conversation with the outside world. The beginning of instruction in this new method had some difficulties to surmount, especially with the pupils that were already familiar with the old teaching; it took a good many years to make the pupils forgot the former impractical forms, and to accustom themselves to the new but easier ways of expression and communication. This improved condition proceeded very successfully, until on the 8th of July, 1889, Charles Fekete died, and Francis Krenevits stepped in as director of the institution. The administration of this new chief was only short lived as after a two years' very active service, he died on the 8th of July, 1891. He was succeeded by Ignatz Privár as director but he handled the affairs of the establishment only three years, being appointed director of the Royal Hungarian Institution for the Blind in Budapest, 1895. In this year Alexander Borbély, the present occupant, was appointed director of the establishment in Vacz.

According to the Statistical Review of the Hungarian Deaf-Mute Institution at Vacz, there were at the opening of the establishment in 1802 only twenty pupils, increasing until the end of the year to twenty-four. Today, a century later, we have 151 in the school. At the beginning there were four teachers, while we have today twenty. During the past hundred years there

were admitted in all 1410 pupils to the institution, the number increasing by three or four every year, seldom more until very lately, as for instance in 1894. Thirty-three then were admitted, and in 1895, fifty-three. There were among the admitted ones 882 boys and 525 girls, respectively sixty-two and thirty-eight per cent. In 1901-2 the newly admitted ones include seventy-five per cent. boys, and twenty-five per cent., girls. The boys have always been more numerous than the girls.

Besides the institution at Vacz there are other deaf and dumb establishments in different parts of Hungary and the next we shall mention is the one in the city of Temesvar, which was opened in 1889-1890. It has at present seven classes with fifty-eight pupils, supported mainly by the city but assisted also by the state with a regular yearly contribution and an endowment of one hundred thousand florins, left by Alexander Bonnaz, Bishop of Csanad. The term is eight years. Another prominent deaf-mute institution is that of Kaposvar. This was established at the expenses of the town, with some assistance from the county and state, and opened in 1902, with five divisions, five teachers and forty-three pupils. Still another establishment is that of Kolozsvar, built by the city and county and subsidized partly by the state. It was opened in 1901 with forty. There is also the deaf and dumb state school in Budapest; it has a palatial building and was opened with great ceremonies in 1901 with six divisions and sixty-seven pupils; the term of instruction is eight years. The Deaf and Dumb and Blind Institution at Kecskemet was built in 1900, and opened in 1901 with three divisions and thirty-one deaf scholars and eleven blind; the expenses were contributed by the city and county and the establishment is supported in the same way. A new deaf and dumb and blind institution was built in Szeged in 1902-3 by the city and opened in the latter year. At present it has only two divisions which will be enlarged to eight divisions and for twenty-sixth students. It is supported wholly by the city. There has been one big building appropriated by the city of Iolsva, the birthplace of Andreas Cházár, for its transformation into a deaf and dumb and blind institution in honor of their countryman. The entire maintenance in all future is to be provided by the city of Iolsva. Another

establishment, though only in a small way, was opened on October 15, 1901, at the city of Eger with but eight pupils to begin with. It is intended to enlarge it during the coming years and support it entirely by contributions of the community.

The Hebrew Deaf and Dumb Institution at Budapest should not be forgotten. It was founded by the munificence of the late Anton Fochs, died on May 31, 1874, who willed the handsome sum of 400,000 florins for the erection of this establishment and for the support and education of indigent Hebrew boys and girls, with the condition that every year also two pupils of non-Hebrew descent shall be admitted, instructed, and provided for. The term is from six to seven years, the age of training is from seven to fifteen. There are five men and three women teachers besides the director Leopold Grünberger, who is himself a well trained educator in this line. Since the opening of this institution in 1881, there have always been from eighty to one hundred pupils present, and all are free boarders. In conclusion must be mentioned the Jubilee Festivities held with great pomp at Vacz and in Budapest for the commemoration of the establishment of the first deaf and dumb institution of Hungary in the year 1802.

"GRASPING THE MEANING AS A WHOLE."

EDWARD B. NITCHIE, NEW YORK, N. Y.

Mrs. Alexander Graham Bell, in her address before the Fourth Summer Meeting of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech at Chautauqua, emphasized the value to a speech-reader of the "power of grasping the meaning of what is said as a whole, from possibly a few words, or even on parts of those words." She deprecated the time wasted in trying to "decipher the words one by one," calling such deciphering "the slowest, most uninteresting and the most difficult method of speech-reading." But the result of the "power of grasping meanings as whole" is "the understanding of every word spoken as surely and a thousand times more rapidly than by the mechanical word by word deciphering. It has the further advantage of allowing the speaker to speak almost as rapidly and indistinctly as usual..... If one is to go out into the world and read the ordinary careless half-uttered speech of the generality of mankind, it is necessary to cultivate the habit of going as straightly as possible to the point."

An experience of several years both as a speech-reader and as a teacher of speech-reading to the adult hard-of-hearing, convinces me that Mrs. Bell is altogether right. A short time ago I attended a lecture by the Rev. Dr. Rainsford on The Church of the Future. The first half of the lecture he spoke rather slowly, and I understood almost everything. Any good speech-reader could have done the same. But for the last half of the lecture he became excited and spoke very rapidly, so that it would have been impossible for any speech-reader to understand every word. I lost much, but I got enough to follow the argument, the sense of the discourse, all the way through, and I enjoyed the lecture from beginning to end. A speech-reader employing the "word deciphering" method would, for this last half of the lecture, have been hopelessly at sea.

More and more have I come to feel that this power of grasping meanings as wholes is the most valuable accomplishment a speech-reader can have. To develop this power on the part of my pupils has become increasingly one of my chief aims from the very beginning of the instruction. Not that I disbelieve in, or neglect, the careful study of the positions, but that I have come to feel that even this theoretical knowledge is of less importance than skill in grasping meanings as wholes. It is this skill, when innate in a person, that makes the "natural born" speech-reader. Among my pupils, an analysis of those cases where exceptionally rapid progress has been made has convinced me that it was just this skill that made such progress possible. Some of them, even after expert instruction, still remained woefully ignorant of the positions. Their theoretical knowledge was small; but they had a practical skill unsurpassed by many whose theoretical knowledge was much greater.

Speech-reading contains, and always will contain, an element of "guess-work." The only way that absolute accuracy in word deciphering can be attained by the speech-reader is to have the speaker adopt slow utterance and a gross exaggeration of the organic positions. For all ordinary purposes, instruction on such lines means time, effort and money thrown away. A speech-reader trained to be dependent on slow speech and "mouthing" has a mighty poor crutch to carry him through this world. Nevertheless, to a certain extent, guess-work can be eliminated for all mouths and all manner of talking. A thorough knowledge of the positions and drill with each position singly and in combination with other positions, will do much to accomplish this. The aim of the instructor in speech-reading should therefore be twofold, namely, to eliminate guess-work as far as possible, and to develop the power of guessing. This latter aim I think has never had the attention it deserves; it is really the aim to develop that quality which makes the "natural born" speech-reader.

It has been my privilege to have among my pupils a number who had previously had instruction in the word deciphering method, all of whom seemed to have come to a point beyond which they could not pass. Seeing where the trouble lay, I directed my energies in each case to develop their latent but

neglected powers of guessing, or of grasping meanings as wholes. The results in each case have been excellent. One case I have particularly in mind. The pupil had had one year's instruction when I began with her, but she could understand me only when I spoke slowly, very distinctly and with frequent repetitions. At the end of three months, with two lessons a week, she could understand me in conversation at perfectly natural speed, with scarcely a repetition in the course of half an hour. Of course she had become familiar with my mouth, but she had made corresponding progress in her intercourse with others, though not having attained quite the skill she had with me.

A fundamental pre-requisite of this power of guessing, as Mrs. Bell has said, is a good vocabulary. This is something I take for granted on the part of my pupils, as they are all adults and only "hard-of-hearing." My methods of developing the power vary somewhat with the pupil. With all I make it a point never to exaggerate or "mouth" the positions. Slow, careful utterance I permit myself only at the outset, and endeavor to increase the speed and naturalness of the utterance just as rapidly as the progress of the pupil will allow. Unaccented vowel sounds are given their true unaccented values. When we realize that these unaccented sounds constitute about one half the vowel sounds in ordinary speech, the importance of avoiding false accented values for them is evident if the speech-reader is to be trained to cope with the "generality of mankind."

I find it helpful to read familiar, but not memorized, passages from favorite authors. The selection is read through without interruption, and even though words and sentences be lost, the pupil must endeavor to follow along with the thought and "let the dead past bury its dead." The speed of the reading is regulated by the capacity of the pupil. Many variations of this method of practice and drill are possible, according both to the pupil and the personality of the instructor.

As the pupils become more advanced, I take up with them what I call "lecture work." I have prepared talks on various subjects of interest, the outline of which I give to the pupil. This outline shows the progress of my thought and enables the pupil to keep in touch therewith. Only when the thought is hopelessly

lost do I stop to repeat. A few of the subjects may be of interest: "A Visit to the Wayside Inn," "Hunting Coon," "Custer's Luck," "A Legend of Florence" (a story), "Jonathan Edwards, His Life and Influence," "Ralph Waldo Emerson, His Life and Influence," "The Conquest of Mexico," are some of the titles, given in order according to the difficulty of the subject-matter. I do not memorize the talks, preferring to clothe the thought in colloquial language.

Employing these and other methods of developing the power of grasping meanings as wholes has had uniformly favorable results. Each pupil must be treated as a unit, and his or her special difficulties studied and met with special work and drill. Adaptive instruction along these lines accomplishes wonders even with those slower and duller pupils who could never be made successfully speech-readers by word deciphering methods.

HOW TO INTEREST PUPILS IN READING.[1]

BETTIE B. SPENCER, MILWAUKEE, WISCONSIN.

What more can be said than has been said and written upon this subject? The first thought that suggests itself is, create within the child a desire for books and what they contain. Yes, but when does a child first feel this desire?

Few deaf children naturally like books; most of them need direction that they may learn how to appreciate their companionship. The little child sees books and handles them, but they do not mean anything to him until he finds out that the printed page has something to reveal, that it is the key which will admit him to the unknown.

Book-making may be called the initiative. The child makes a book in which he writes all words and expressions learned, as

A boy,
A girl,
A man,
A ball.

He speaks, writes, and represents each by drawing, associating name with object in each instance.

Soon little sentences are learned and treated in the same manner, as,—

The boy has a ball.
The ball is round.
The ball is red.

His compositions and journals are also written in this little book of his own making.

As soon as the printed form has been learned, give the child books; much is learned by the mere handling of them. He will be interested in the words which he knows. Pictures do their part, too, for they suggest to the child what the book contains.

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[1]A paper read before the Deaf Section of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, December 30, 1903.

We want to give to our pupils the reading habit and arouse their interest in every way possible. In their library reading, the older pupils will be interested in keeping a list of the books which they read.

Children in the third grade can tell name of book, author, and something about it. As they advance through the grades, book reviews may be written and kept in this form:

Name of Book. Author. Opinion of Pupil. Remarks.

It is a good plan to offer a prize to those who read intelligently a certain number of books in a given time, also special merit to boys and girls giving best reviews during the month.

Have selections memorized. Even the second and third grades can learn quotations and here mount the first steps of literature.

Some one has said, "He best performs life's little duties whose mind is filled with higher thoughts." Do we realize what it means to lead the child to see the beautiful in some memory gem or selection?

Let the boys and girls become familiar with pictures of authors; teach their names so that they may associate quotation with author. As they advance and take up the master-pieces of literature, interest is much deeper when some knowledge of the author has been attained.

Choose an author for the month and have pupils throughout the school make a study of the one chosen, little children learning name and quotation, while the older ones have a book in which they write a biographical sketch, quotations, and poems which they have learned, also a list of selections read. In this way they keep all knowledge gained of the author. Pupils enjoy collecting pictures of authors studied.

In the upper grades the pupils' interest may be awakened by the study of such poems and masterpieces as, Hiawatha, Snowbound, The Courtship of Miles Standish, Evangeline, Enoch Arden, Julius Caesar, Merchant of Venice, and others, for in the study of these they have an opportunity to become acquainted with the principal characters connected with the several stories. The interest may be so aroused, in such pieces, that they will appreciate the thought and even the style of the author.

Do not be afraid of the many new words that will appear. This only increases the pupils' vocabulary. Perhaps we cannot drill upon all of them, but select for such purpose those that the child will meet in his everyday life.

When the study of any one of these stories has been completed, have the children reproduce it, illustrate, and make booklets; they enjoy doing this when thoroughly interested in the subject.

Paraphrase, tell stories from the classics, and reproduce short selections. Literature games do their share in creating interest.

I. Authors' game.

Collect pictures of authors, mount them and see who can recognize most. In this way pupils become familiar with names and faces.

II. Another game is to hold up a picture and call for a quotation or selection from the author.

III. A child may represent an author by giving a character sketch, and the class may guess his name. Benefit gained: knowledge of author, lip-reading, and powers of expression.

IV. Write names of authors on slips of paper and pin them on the backs of the pupils; they must find out whom they represent by asking questions.

V. Give quotations, names of books and poems; have the pupils guess the authors.

How much there is that will correlate with the subject matter of other studies! In geography much has been written that is both pleasing and interesting. Pupils are always eager to know more than just what is given in their text books, so here the opportunity is great.

Newspaper work does its part also, for in what can you find a greater scope than in current events. As soon as boys and girls become interested in this direction, they will bring in quantities of material bearing upon happenings in all parts of the world. When these have been discussed, you see how much geography and current history have been learned.

Cut articles from papers and magazines, paste them upon

sheets of paper, write questions below, and have the pupils find answers by reading the article.

In history the opportunity is perhaps greater, for we have so many poems and master-pieces in which are fine descriptions of American life and manners, which correlate with different periods in the development of our country.

A few of these are: Evangeline, and The Courtship of Miles Standish, already mentioned; Rip Van Winkle, Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill, Paul Revere's Ride, and Uncle Tom's Cabin.

In nature work acquaint the boys and girls with Shelley, Bryant, John Burroughs, and others who have always seen the beautiful in things around them.

We who are teachers, in what way can we better fit our children for the future than to develop in them a love for reading, for when this habit has been established their education will go on.

We all agree with Dr. Bell that books are the best language teachers.

SUGGESTIONS ON THE MANAGEMENT OF THE VOICE.[1]

EVELINE I. KINSEY, TRAINING COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS OF THE DEAF, EALING, LONDON.

The production and management of voice is an important part of our oral work, and the following suggestions may be therefore of use to young teachers of the deaf in saving their own voices and developing those of their pupils.

In all teaching there is more or less strain on the vocal organs, and we often hear of loss of voice and sore throat in consequence.

Voice economy is the keynote of good, clear articluation and speech, both of which should be easy and never forced. Force is not only unnecessary, but distinctly hurtful. The basis of full, firm, and pure tone is deep and copious breathing: there can be no natural and long-sustained speaking conducted with ease alike to speaker and hearer, without the proper management of the breath. Breath control is a most important point, and inspiration and expiration should be practised. Breathing in repose is quiet, but after exertion it is quick and deep. Singing and speaking are physical and emotional exercises, and increase the breathing, making it deeper, fuller, and more rapid. The voice will not be properly developed until the power to breathe deeply and quickly has been acquired.

The breath should enter the lungs through the nose, the air entering thus being filtered, warmed, and moistened before it reaches the lungs.

Dr. E. Symes Thompson, Consulting Physician to the Brompton Hospital and Chairman of the Society for Training Teachers of the Deaf and for the diffusion of the German system, says: "Deaf mutes breathe mainly through the open mouth, hence arise a narrowing of the nostrils and palate, a thickening of the

[1]From The Teacher of the Deaf.

lips and tonsils, and granular degeneration of the mucous membrane lining the posterior nares and pharyngeal wall. In consequence of this mouth breathing and disuse of the nose the sense of smell is lost, and closure of the eustachian tube with secondary injury to the tympanic cavity occurs. The senses of smell and taste give warning of noxious matters from which we ought to escape, thus therefore the absence of the sense increases the danger. The main evil, however, of mouth breathing is this:—The air which should be warmed, moistened, and filtered in its passage through the nose enters at once into the respiratory organs, in too dry and dusty a condition to be suited to the delicate pulmonary membrane. The dry unsifted air sets up chronic catarrh, which spreads to the eye, the ear, and especially into the lung."

The same authority says that deaf children should be specially watched in their sleep, and the lips gently closed when found open.

We should breathe deeply with well set muscles and erect chest, but *without conscious effort.* A proper and comfortable position of the body will greatly help in this. The position should be erect, the chest raised, the shoulders down and back, the chin slightly drawn back, the waist held back, and the eyes looking level. Correct carriage and position of the body affect the breathing far more than appears at first sight; and when once these are attained they should become habitual and be perfectly free, unrestrained, without effort and self-consciousness. The voice is a most sensitive organ, and any self-consciousness or consciousness of effort will effectually destroy the clearness, fulness, and beauty of its tone. This is especially the case with deaf children. Most of us know how different is the child's "school voice," when its thought is concentrated upon the effort it is making, to the same voice when it is uplifted naturally and spontaneously in play: the one is harsh, constricted, and often delivered with effort; the other is free, natural, and sometimes almost musical. The more easy, quiet, and unconscious of effort the breathing is, the better the tone of the voice will be.

Every tone requires for perfection a certain quantity of breath, which cannot be increased or diminished without injury

to strength and sound; if the supply of breath is deficient the voice will be flat, feeble, and the pitch lowered; if the supply of breath is too great the voice will be rough and jerky. With a nervous, eager pupil, whose words come rushing out with gasps of breath, it is a good plan to stop the speaking, and make the child breathe (of course with closed lips) slowly and deeply three or four times; this steadies and controls the breathing, and the subsequent speech will be better and more natural.

With regard to *voice*, the three essentials for tone are Force, Pitch, and Quality.

In considering *Force* we must remember that it is always present in some degree as a quality, and the abuse of it is so general and so hurtful, that it seems to indicate that the only suggestions wanted are those dealing with the restraining of this power. The degree of force which may be obtained under certain stimulus is indicative of the physical condition, and any attempt to use an amount of force which does not appropriately belong to the individual produces a strained effort most disagreeable to the listener's ear, besides being dangerous to the voice itself. Force cannot do the work of quality; if that were possible, the person who had the strongest voice would be the best speaker; instead of which, the element of force in such a voice is often a detriment. We should aim for quality, and the proper degree of force will come.

Pitch is the elevation or depression of the tone of the voice, adopted at will according to the nature of the utterance. It is questionable whether in giving expression to strong emotion the adjustment of pitch is not entirely instinctive. All changes in pitch are produced by certain adjustments of the vocal cords. When the voice is not properly supported by the breath, and when the chest sinks during vocalization, the result will probably be a minor cadence with a die-away effect; the tone is flattened and suppressed as if the voice were under a blanket, and sometimes the higher notes are never reached.

The effect of emotional and physical conditions on the prevailing pitch is very great. Many people under the influence of a slight nervous strain will use the voice at a much higher key than the normal one. This shows effort, and emotional tension

reacts on the nerves and increases the strain. This is specially apparent in cases where there is a lack of physical vitality; and usually if deep, calm breathing and steadiness of voice can be resumed, the voice will drop to its natural key.

The pitch should not be raised much in order to be heard, as the probable result would be failure.

Quality is the third essential in the voice and the most important part of force. It is the kind or character of voice, and is the element independent of pitch or melody. Every person's voice has an individual quality by which we recognize him, and this quality reacts on those present to a great degree. A fretful or aggressive voice will rouse anger in the person listening, and a tender voice will sometimes move to tears. There is a close connection also between the facial expression and tone: it is difficult to give a very angry speech without the facial expression showing anger, or to give a sharp, sudden order with an expression of placid, amiable content. There is almost always a contraction of the facial muscles where there is any feeling of anxiety or irritation. Now although our deaf pupils do not hear our voices, they are specially quick to notice our facial expression and to reflect it in their own; and as surely as we enter a class-room feeling listless, possibly out of heart, and discouraged in our work, so surely (unless we very carefully guard against it) will the feeling show itself in our voice and expression, and be reflected in the faces of the children we are going to teach, and our face will have created the feeling in their minds.

The elements of pitch and tone have their part in the effect produced because they also respond to the condition of the speaker, but it is the quality of the voice that moves and sways the emotions.

In considering how far quality can be cultivated, we must remember that physical conditions affect quality, but these conditions can be greatly modified and improved by training the organs in their right use, and by change, if necessary, in the physical condition. For instance, a nasal tone is often the result of the mouth and throat not being sufficiently opened, the uvula being dropped, and the tongue pushed up; if these physical conditions are altered, the nasal tone will disappear. Habitual quality de-

pends partly on the formation of the vocal organs, which differ slightly in different individuals, and partly on other conditions which should be under our control. We can vary the size and shape of the sound chamber by raising or lowering, thickening or flattening the tongue, by using the muscles of the throat in different ways, by the position of the lips, and by various other means.

It may be said that all this attention to the voice requires time, and that already teachers have more than they can do to give their pupils a good command of language. But surely it is time well spent since it will result in a pleasanter and more natural voice, and in improved general health.

I cannot conclude these few remarks without gratefully acknowledging my indebtedness to Miss Mary Johnson for many of the suggestions contained in this paper. We at Ealing have received much kind help and many valuable hints from her lectures on Voice Production.

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.

G. FERRERI, PALERMO, ITALY.

[We have succeeded in arranging with the author, Prof. G. Ferreri of Palermo, Italy, for the re-publication of his work, "The American Institutions for the Education of the Deaf," in THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, and in this number present The Foreword and Chapter I. The remainder of the work will appear serially, in subsequent numbers, until the publication is completed. We feel sure this reprint in English will be welcomed by the readers of the REVIEW, who already know Prof. Ferreri well and favorably as a thinker and writer, through his contributions to various American and English publications.—EDITORS REVIEW.]

THE FOREWORD OF THE ITALIAN EDITION.

There should not be any need of it, but at present it is the custom to present one's own prose with some pretext or other to the gentle reader, and I do not wish to make an exception.

I will say therefore that I publish these notes—quite other than musical—for the simple reason that it gives me pleasure to do so. This then is the cause, of whose verity I trust no one will doubt.

As to the object, it is quickly explained. I know that many of my colleagues have not (for neither had I before going to the United States) a clear idea of what the educators of the Deaf have done and are doing on the other side of the Atlantic to improve the condition of those deprived of hearing and speech. And one cannot get this clear idea from following the publications which come to us from there, nor from reading the particularized accounts given to us by European visitors there, for their accounts are in fact meagre and one-sided. May my summary opinion not displease the colleagues who preceded me on their peregrinations! I could easily demonstrate that either their

visit was too hurried, or that their intention was to give an illustraton of some *thesis*, as for example, that of the excellence of the *combined system.*

But after all, no one can deny the truth of the adage that *four eyes can see better than two.* It will not therefore be presumption in me if I endeavor to bring a modest contribution to the general knowledge of the educational work for the Deaf in the United States; that is to say, in the country which, according to Mosso, "not only most approaches Europe in the field of science, but indeed surpasses her."

It must also be noted that I call mine a modest contribution, as a warning to the friends who from excess of kindness and esteem, expect more of me than I am able to give. My friend Marius Dupont, to quote one of the most noted names as well as one most dear to me, alluding to my journey to America, wrote in the beginning of 1902 these words, which were for me, I confess, an augury and an encouragement:

"On nous annonce que le Prof. J. Ferreri fait en Amérique une voyage d'études. Avec cette belle sincérité que tout le monde lui reconnait, le maître italien ne manquera pas de publier, à son retour, une relation de sa visite aux écoles Américaines, qui ne manquera ni de piquant, ni d' intérêt. Après la cloche d' Heidsiek et celle de Lars Havstad, nous aurons la cloche de Ferreri, un vrai carillon, et qui fera du bruit et de la besogne." One may see from these words that the colleague of the National Institute of Paris expects more from my account than I really propose to give in publishing it; and I should regret it if by the force of contrast, the bright fancy of my friend Dupont should lessen the effect of my observations, which have no other object than to give an idea of the vigorous and intelligent work of our colleagues of America. Of one thing however I am sure, and that is of the sincerity of the opinions which from time to time I feel authorized to express. If self love does not blind me, I think I have thoroughly examined the state of affairs before giving my impressions the form of judgments, and also I think I have avoided hurried generalization, having proceeded slowly and carefully in the examination of the special conditions of the American schools. In order to do this I have utilized in criti-

cal comparison the judgments and information given by the most competent men on this subject, whom I had the good fortune to meet in my travels. This was necessary in order to understand the purpose and aim of the Institutions visited, as well as those I was not able to visit on account of the distances, or because I found them closed on my arrival.

Besides I found myself in the most favorable conditions of liberty and independence for judging of the educational work for the Deaf.

Free from any preoccupation as to the eventual effect of my criticisms favorable or no, I had no reason for disguising the truth in Italy in order to make friends in America, just as when in America I did not need to hide my opinions in order to procure the friendship of the colleagues of Europe.

My first plan for the publication was to develop from the notes taken on the spot a detailed account of the schools visited. But in re-reading these notes I perceived that many things had been repeated with a tiresome monotony, because in visiting the Institutions of America one meets always and everywhere the very best hygienic and pedagogical conditions. So my notes would have been too much alike, and instead of giving a general idea of the organization of the American schools, might have instilled into the mind of the reader a doubt that my researches had only been made in those Institutions which were the best provided and the most wisely directed. Hence I have preferred the form of a report, founded upon the subjects most necessary and which best correspond to the study of the special questions of our pedagogy, alluding to particular persons or places only when the importance of the facts demands a well determined and circumscribed subject for discussion.

As to the manner of publication, I had thought of offering these notes to the readers of my magazine, "The Education of the Deaf," so as to give them a proof of my gratitude; but the publication in this way would have taken too long a time, and therefore they would have lost much of their interest and importance; not being other in substance than a chance publication.

May the following pages testify to the unalterable affection which binds me to the sacred cause of the Deaf, and may they

serve to excite a spirit of emulation among my colleagues, for whom and from whom the progress of our special pedagogy is to be expected.

May 1, 1903.

CHAPTER I.

The American Schools for the Instruction of the Deaf.

To those who read with care what has been written by the different travellers, who for different reasons, and at different times, have visited the United States, there cannot escape a certain contradiction in their various judgments. The contradiction consists in this: while they generally speak of America and of the Americans as a very young country and people, one observes in the account certain circumstances which betray the existence of faults belonging to an ancient, historic ambient. Even Mosso, who studied in America the most interesting moral and religious problems and the most vital questions of education and of modern culture, did not escape such a contradiction.

It is not difficult however to explain the cause of this phenomenon, if we reflect that the American people itself is simply the result of the fusion of the various nationalities of Europe. This inherent fact is impressed at every instant on the judgment of the visitor, who in the cities and in the country of the United States is obliged to make many and varied observations upon the contingencies of life and on the various manifestations of custom, education and social relations.

Although my object in visiting the United States was one of the most limited, still I also had the opportunity of observing many sides of American life. Hence I was able to find the reason of the contradiction just referred to, and this has facilitated my study of the principal questions of education and of the instruction of the Deaf in particular.

Now, if I were obliged to state in a very brief summary all that I had the opportunity of observing and studying in respect to the special Pedagogy of the abnormal, I would simply say that

in America one finds here and there the same defects of which they complain in similar institutions in Europe; but that while here they seem to strive to rival each other in maintaining the *statu quo*, to the shame of every progress; there they wish to go ahead at any cost, and the prosperity of the Nation as well as that of single States and Cities is such that little by little the necessary moral and material means are supplied for the greatest possible improvement of the educational work.

But I must limit these notes to the schools for the Deaf, and I will enter at once upon the subject.

The schools now existing in the United States for the education of the Deaf are, according to the last statistics, 123, and may be classified as follows:

57 Public boarding-schools or institutions of the city or state.

50 Public day-schools.

16 Private schools or institutions.

Should we wish to examine this classification more particularly we would find:

1. That in the first group there are some mixed institutions, that is, boarding-schools which also receive day scholars;

2. That in each of the three groups they have Kindergarten schools for the little deaf children who are not yet of a school age;

3. That while the largest institutions are boarding-schools with hundreds of pupils, the day-schools are calculated as classes with from 5 to 50 pupils;

4. That in the third group are included the private boarding-schools and denominational schools, almost if not quite independent of any official surveillance;

5. That they are trying to extend more largely the form of the day-school, as they believe it is the most favorable to the education of the Deaf and to their Oral education.

All this results from a first examination; but I shall have occasion to return to each of these particular points. I cannot refrain however from noticing here that even the advocates of the day-school have a certain tenderness for the boarding-school, especially in respect to very young children. This fact is a sufficient explanation of why also in America the much debated question of what kind of school is best adapted to the education

of the Deaf, cannot be resolved in a more decided and general manner.

The one form of instruction or the other may be possible and even necessary in one place, while for many reasons it may not be practicable in another place. In every single case the form of the school must be subordinated, not only to the condition of the family and the geographical distribution of deaf-mutism, but also to the conditions of the existing institutions which have traditions and models which can only be modified by the slow and gradual action of time.

Because it is not permissible to speak of the United States like a nation of Europe, the United States is too vast a country to be spoken of as a whole, morally compact, or as of an organic intellectual unity. There is in opposition to this not only its vastness and its various grades of culture and civilization, but also the questions as yet unsolved of north and south, of east and west.

All are agreed in one opinion, and that is that "the United States is the greatest nation in the world." This no one can contradict, although one may make the necessary reservations when it is proclaimed to be the most highly developed, the most civilized, the strongest country, etc.

Another circumstance which cannot be doubted is the unlimited liberty for every kind of initiative. This fact, even while restricting my observations to the limited field of my researches, made me wonder sometimes, and I always remained in doubt, if the centralization of the State is really a blessing as regards culture and education.

In the United States the Federal Government does not interest itself in education, and the State Government leaves the private initiative free until such a time as its work shall be proclaimed an institution of public utility. Then the State Government and the City Administration intervene to assure the existence of the new institution. This intervention is nothing else than the simple application of a legislative act, uniform for all. The benefit of elementary instruction cannot and should not be the privilege of a few. Therefore either the children can attend the common schools, or as in the case of abnormal children, they

are in need of special schools. In the one case as in the other the Government must provide for the rights of the people without making distinction of religion or patrimony, or the condition of greater or less wealth of the family, who may demand of the State or City Government whatever school they prefer for their unfortunate children. In case the school chosen is not situated in the place where the family resides, the child will be sent to it at the expense of the Government without further question.

But in order to understand better the above classification, we must notice that many fine institutions have been started and are being started, we may say, every day, by the initiative of the Board of Education. This Board acts as an Office by itself, and is composed, in the different States, of persons who have been appointed to this position by the free election of the people, independently of other administrations or political offices.

Other Institutes which may boast a certain antiquity and with it their own traditions, possess an administration of their own for the maintenance of the establishment, the school furniture, and for a supplementary portion for the maintenance of the pupils.

Others still receive an annual subsidy from the public administration, or a fixed contribution for each of the pupils received at the expense of the State or City chosen by the parents of the pupil as noted above.

This organization which assures the existence of all the institutions, however they may be initiated or managed, does not however exclude a vast field of action which is left to private charity under the form of voluntary offerings and annual or permanent subscriptions. I was present myself, in the Capital of the United States, at a real and veritable collection, made at the same sitting after a public examination, for the benefit of a Kindergarten which was entirely supported by the state of Pennsylvania. To me this seemed an anomaly, but the words of those who promoted the collection and the silent response of those who placed their offerings in the plate, persuaded me that there was an admirable harmony between the Government and private individuals, between the citizens of one State and those of another; this together with the observation of similar facts convinced me

that the Americans do not waste time in discussion when they believe they can do a good work.

This variety of systems and this community of sentiment redound to the well-being and increase of the institutions. One might think that the unbounded liberty given to private undertakings, extended as well to the methods of teaching, might sometimes deviate or hinder the pedagogical and didactic development of this or that institution. But as far as I was able to observe this drawback is remedied by the lively spirit of emulation and by the reciprocal moral and intellectual influence exercised constantly by the Press, by lectures (which in the United States constitute the principal and most efficacious means of culture), and by the Congresses and the visits which the educators of the various schools make to each other.

This last circumstance is not hindered either by differences of religion or of didactic aim.

There is in fact an incessant competition in doing good and in seeking the best methods; and in order to attain the goal desired they do not pay attention to anything else but the well-being of the Deaf and the improvement of their condition. In this competition neither the Government nor private individuals take any thought as to the limits of their action. The Government provides according to the provisions of the legislature which acts in the different States; the private citizens respond according to their circumstances and their feelings to the invitation of the Board of Education for securing the fulfilment of those provisions which are considered necessary for the progress of the school and for the assistance of the pupils.

In order better to explain the supplementary office of private charity in behalf of the schools for the Deaf, we may add that the toys and museums of objects, for example, in many of the schools (Kindergarten section) have been provided by the friends of the deaf children, obtained for them by the Board and by their teachers. In other schools this provision is extended to the furniture, clothes and food and even to "articles de luxe" as one might say, such as musical instruments (pianoforte) for the recreation of the teachers, and instruments for auricular instruction (akoulalion and the like).

Another example is afforded by the railroad and electric companies who grant the necessary tickets to the pupils of the day and also of the boarding-schools for a daily attendance at the school, or for their spending their vacation with their families at home.

It will not be thought an exaggeration when I say that in every place from the largest cities to the smallest villages of the United States, the finest and most commodious buildings are those dedicated to the instruction of the children of the common people and the public libraries. Given this favorable circumstance for the National culture, it is not surprising to find that also in the United States the schools and institutions for the Deaf are such as could be envied by any nation of Europe. When one visits the American institutions for the Deaf one cannot help calling to mind, by the law of contrasts, the miserable condition of the majority of our institutes, and from the association of ideas one remembers the meanness of the public schools in many communities in Italy. Then the reason of the little or no efficacy of our laws for compulsory primary instruction becomes evident. One may say that in the United States the children of the poor are never so well off as when at school, and the reason of this well-being is very simple. In Italy they made the law for compulsory instruction before they had the schools or the teachers. In the United States they provide first of all for the comfort of the school as regards sanitary arrangements, and then invite the children to attend it. There the program is: either well done or not at all.

That which is said of schools in general, can be repeated without any modification of the special schools and institutes for the Deaf. These have some really superb establishments, situated generally in the midst of green fields or meadows. The necessary divisions for the class-rooms, dormitories, shops, etc., are arranged upon the plan of a plurality of buildings. Although co-education of the sexes is a fixed principle, yet they have separate places for recreation, for study and for work. When one observes the material wealth of the institutions of America where water, light and heat are freely distributed according to the needs with convenient machinery, one's thoughts turn to our schools

and the scanty means at our disposal. The inferiority of our institutions in comparison with similar ones in the United States is such as cannot be remedied even in a distant future. Ours have a defect of origin, that is, of having been located in ancient buildings, in the midst of the town, without a free circulation of light and air; and added to this defect of origin is that of development, because even in the best financial conditions the Board of administration would never be able to free themselves from the sordid opinion that it is better to enlarge and repair old ruins, than to undertake the expense of building new buildings. Therefore it happens that certain institutions, which in the altered financial condition, could have been made *ex novo*, have remained simply patched-up old houses.

In America when they construct an institution of education, they do not think only of the present moment, but also study how they can best provide for an increase of buildings, and so they secure an area of land of which the present institution occupies only a part. The rest serves to separate the building from the street, and offers to the pupils a delightful place for recreation and games in the open air. This is really one of the most pleasant impressions which the European receives when he admires the great institutions of New York, Philadelphia and Washington, of Northampton and Hartford, to mention those only most noted in Europe. Another favorable impression is received in observing the richness, good quality and practical usefulness of the equipment of the school-room. For each instruction they have every necessary objective material, such as maps, models, colored pictures, albums of pictures and of photographs, and scientific instruments, and books of every kind are always at hand for the use and observation of every pupil. Besides in their library and reading-room, the pupils also find in their class-rooms dictionaries and encyclopedias, books of reference for history, geography, literature and art. Besides this the pupils are allowed full liberty to bring into the class such objects as fruit, flowers, plants in pots, photographs, engravings, illustrated postal-cards, newspapers etc., every thing in fact which can afford an opportunity for instruction, for a lesson upon things and facts,

for the explanation and the acquisition of the most varied vocabulary and of the knowledge relating to it.

In this manner they develop in the pupils that education of the aesthetic sense and the love of nature which makes so small a part of our teaching. Our pupils remain too often, because of the lack of such a liberal instruction, in isolation and ignorance of the most simple and most cheering sources of intellectual enjoyment.

After all that has already been said, it seems superfluous to speak more at length of the equipment of the school-room, always adapted to the height of the pupil; of the fine arrangement and appearance of the desks and the implements of the shops; of the machinery employed as the source of motion, light and heat; of the bath-rooms, the gymnastic hall, the dormitories, dining rooms, offices of the Principal and of the Administration. It is sufficient to say that every thing in the American institutions is not only in good condition, but also arranged in the best possible manner; and everywhere one is impressed with the fact that nothing is done for the eyes of the visitor, but solely and entirely for the needs of practical life, and for the comfort of the pupils and teachers.

DISCIPLINE.

MARGARET J. STEVENSON, OLATHE, KANSAS.

There is no stronger evidence of the failure of work in the class-room than lack of discipline. Lack of discipline means lack of attention; lack of attention—failure.

The power of command is to a certain extent an inborn power, the gift of God, but even without that natural gift, there comes with the cultivation of the intellect, if we but use it correctly, a like development of the power to command and to control the minds of the children placed in our care.

It is the natural instinct of a child to obey. Early in life he obeys because he admires; later, because he has learned in his daily intercourse with the one who cares for him, not only to respect but to love her, and he wishes to please her; and now, having won his admiration, his respect, and his heart, comes the real life lesson of obedience, that he should obey because it is the duty he owes to himself, his loved ones, and God.

The earliest lesson a child should learn in the school room, is one of obedience. This obedience should be quick, positive, and happy. Early in his calendar of school life, the child has learned that what the teacher requires is a reasonable demand, and that his obedience to this demand brings happiness and pleasure both to himself and to those around him. The teacher, on the other hand, has had to give untiring, individual study and thought to the temperament and characteristics of each child.

It is a frequent failing of a teacher to have in her own mind set rules for the control of the children under her, and to require of all a like obedience to her code of laws. Remember that no two children can be controlled or corrected in the same manner; the method used successfully upon one child may reduce another to a deplorable state of obstinacy—and there is absolutely nothing harder to amend than an unfortunate mistake on the part of

a teacher who has used upon some child a method of control which has awakened the stubborn quality in a heretofore yielding disposition. Just here let me suggest that lack of confidence and timidity are frequently mistaken for stubbornness.

Because a child loses his temper, is sullen, ungovernable, and perhaps even throws himself upon the floor and refuses to obey, is no reason at all why a teacher should consider that severe, abrupt punishment should be administered. If the child displays this sort of temperament, his is a nervous, excitable, and quick-tempered disposition which needs all the gentleness possible. Be kind BUT FIRM with him, cool-headed and passive (in fact, no teacher *has a right* to undertake a "severe case of discipline" if she herself is angry).

Show the child, if only by the expression of your face, how surprised and disappointed you are at his conduct—look it, feel it, act it, and yet, withal, kindly but firmly *insist* upon his doing as you say, and EXPECT HIM TO OBEY YOU AT ONCE, without words or argument on either his part or yours.

The more obstreperous the child, the more exacting should be the teacher in her quiet demand of obedience. If a teacher has started out to conquer such a pupil, she must *conquer* that pupil in the full sense of the word.

DO NOT COMPROMISE, for in so doing a teacher has proven herself weaker than her pupil, and he knows it far better, perhaps, than she realizes.

No matter for what misdemeanor—slight or otherwise—reproof be given, sulkiness should be positively forbidden.

It seems inconsistent to say, punish a child, then require him to look pleasant—but such should be the case. It is not a teacher's aim to anger a child: anger only excites further disobedience.

Then, by all means, when the reproof—be it severe or slight—has been administered and you have succeeded, drop it, *apparently* forget it, and forbid any reference to it from other members of the class. The lesson has been taught and happiness again pervades the school-room, but the remembrance of the determination of the teacher to have her commands obeyed will have found a deep place in the memory of the entire class.

Cultivate the spirit of happiness and good feeling among your pupils; receive John's complaint that Charles pushed him with such a mingled look of reproof, surprise, and laughter toward both of them that they will realize that both the acts of doing and telling were wrong and childish. Do not dwell upon it. The quicker such things are passed over the better, and the more surely will both children have profited by the silent expression of reproof.

And again,—every hour in the day put yourself in the place of the pupil. Remember that you, too, were a child once.

Let us suppose that a pupil sees something ridiculous in school and begins to laugh. How many of us are there who can recall just how hard it was to suppress laughter on occasions? Have sympathy, then, for the child whose laugh gets beyond his control and every now and then breaks out afresh. Remember in your own case how a quick word of reproof somehow stirred up such a commotion within you that to stop laughing seemed impossible. Instead of this reproof, ask the pupil why he is laughing, let the class enjoy it with him, and in this way his nervous condition, for such it is, will have had sufficient vent, and other pupils, perhaps, will have learned a lesson in seeing the humorous side of life—and humor is sadly deficient in our deaf children.

Establish between yourself and your pupils a friendly comradeship which results in hearty freedom and honesty. Laugh with them; joke with them; play with them—and yet, be so sure of your control over them that you may say at any moment, "That will do now; let us get to work again"—and be immediately obeyed.

Such periods of relaxation not only lessen the tension on the child mind, but establish a sympathy and good feeling between teacher and pupils which go to make the school-room life brighter and more wholesome, and the hours spent therein the happiest hours of a child's life.

ELLEN HARRINGTON SWETT.

ELLEN HARRINGTON SWETT.

LUCY M. SANDERS, MT. AIRY, PHILADELPHIA.

In the death of the subject of this brief sketch, Ellen Harrington Swett, the New England Industrial School for Deaf-Mutes at Beverly, Massachusetts, has sustained a loss which seems irreparable to those who knew and loved her best.

Miss Swett was born in Henniker, New Hampshire, in 1854, and being of sturdy New England stock, strong of character, calm and dispassionate of judgment, of solid education, with the clear understanding of the needs of the deaf given to one of deaf parentage, she was eminently fitted for the difficult position which she so successfully filled for twenty-five years. During twenty-one of these years, she was Principal of the school, with the incentive of loyalty stimulating the best of her ability.

Loyalty to her father, William B. Swett, who died four years after he had founded the school at Beverly, led Miss Swett to put aside all advantageous opportunities to labor elsewhere—indeed the trait which marked her as unusual among many was her utter self-abnegation, love for, and thoughtfulness of, others, even to the moment before her death. Being of a retiring disposition, disliking the lime-light of publicity, she lived her life quietly, unostentatiously. Her friends, and they were legion, were quick to appreciate, giving her all praise and encouragement, so that she had the sweet happiness accorded to few of knowing in life how much she was beloved and respected.

When her sudden death, which occurred March 30th, 1904, was announced, the Beverly Citizen said:

"Her death causes universal sorrow in this community. Her modest dignity and unpretending grace, won the hearts of all with whom she came in contact. She had a rare gift in the management and training of children. Her rule was that of love. Those who came to her ignorant, untutored, unruly, found a home and a mother's care as well as wise, intelligent, progressive

teaching, and her influence is felt in many distant homes. Her self-sacrificing spirit and untiring devotion to the cause to which she had dedicated her life, bring to every mind and to many a lip the 'Well Done' accorded to the good and faithful servant.

"The summons found her at her post of duty where she always could have been found whenever a call came for any account of her work. The high ideals set for the school should be kept up and the work go on, but the support and encouragement of all will be needed and doubtless will be freely given in loving memory of her who labored so faithfully for the uplifting and happiness of deaf-mute children."

Thou art gone, Ellen! But thy life was not lived in vain—the memory of thy beautiful sweetness of character shall abide with us forever. That the influence of that memory may stimulate us to emulation of thy Christian strength, courage, patience, and broad charity will be the unending prayer of a sorrowing sister.

PROGRAMME OF THE MEETING OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, ST. LOUIS, 1904.

The Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association will meet in St. Louis, June 28 to July 2, 1904. The meetings will be held in the Exposition grounds, and the "Inside Inn" hotel has been selected for the headquarters of the Association members All the meetings are to be held in the afternoon. This arrangement is made to give people a chance to visit the fair in the morning; in the afternoon, when they are tired of walking, they can sit down in attending the meetings of the various departments.

The following programme for the meetings of this Department has been arranged:

Wednesday Afternoon, June 29, 2 o'clock.

1. President's Address: John W. Jones, M. A., Superintendent of the Ohio Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, Columbus, Ohio.

2. What Teachers may learn from the Model Schools of the Deaf and Blind and their Exhibits: S. M. Green, B. S. D., Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis, Missouri.

3. Sight and Hearing in Relation to Education: Oscar Christman, Ph. D., Professor of Paidology, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

4. Business: Appointment of Committees.

Friday Afternoon, July 1, 2 o'clock.

1. Report of Committee on Statistics Relative to Children in the Public Schools of the United States who need Special Methods of Instruction: Percival Hall, M. A., Professor of Applied Mathematics and Pedagogy, Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C., and Secretary of the Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children.

2. The Chicago Hospital School for Nervous and Delicate Children; its Educational and Scientific Methods: Miss Mary R. Campbell, Secretary and Treasurer, Chicago, Illinois.

3. The Teacher and the Defective Child: M. A. Goldstein, M. D., St. Louis, Missouri.

4. Business: Reports of Committees; Election of Officers.

Special concessions on the combined cost of admission to the Exposition and membership in the Association, and special rates for entertainment for members have been secured. For information on this point, as well as programmes of all the meetings, rates of transportation, ticket conditions, and other details, address Mr. Irwin Shepard, Secretary N. E. A., Winona, Minnesota.

John W. Jones,
President.

CONTEMPORARY THOUGHT.

THE DEAF SON OF CROESUS IN GREEK LITERATURE AND IN AN ITALIAN WORK OF ART.

The explanation which was recently given in the magazine *Atene e Roma* of the three scenes so exquisitely sculptured in the Borgherini chimney-piece, by Benedetto da Rovezzano, has led Mr. Ferreri to compare the various accounts given in Greek literature of the sacrifice of Croesus.

It seemed worth while to extend the researches made, as to that part of the legend referring to the deaf-mute son of Croesus.

Herodotus refers twice to him in the first book of his Histories. The first time when he narrates the premature death of the other son of Croesus, and how the father in order to dissuade him from going to that fatal hunt, said: "For you are indeed my only son; the other one, spoiled as he is by his deafness, I cannot count a son." This is of great importance as showing the opinion of the ancients in regard to the social condition of the Deaf. Herodotus then continues to relate how Croesus had a deaf-mute son, intelligent and good, and that he had tried every means for his recovery, even sending to consult the Oracle of Delphus, who had replied: "It were better for thee that he remained mute; he will first speak in an evil day."

Afterwards the same author says that when the fortress of Sardi was taken by the Persians, a soldier rushed upon Croesus to kill him, and the deaf-mute son filled with terror at the sight exclaimed: "O man, do not kill Croesus!" These were his first words, but he continued to speak for the rest of his life. Herodotus then relates of the sacrifice and salvation of Croesus, but does not refer again to his son.

Xenophon says nothing of Croesus' sacrifice, but relates that when the city was taken, Croesus was led a prisoner to Cyrus, who inquired of him if it were true that he was a favorite of the gods. Croesus told him how he had sent many times to the Oracle of Delphus to know whether he should have sons, and that the Oracle replied he should; "but," added Croesus, "they have been of no good to me, for one remained mute and the other died in the flower of his youth." (Cyclopaedia).

One of the fragments of Nicolaus Damascenus gives an account of the sacrifice of Croesus: "The Persians built a funeral pile to which Croesus, bound hand and foot, was conducted. Croesus begged to see his son, and when he came the father could not refrain from weeping, whereupon the deaf-mute son with tears and sobs embraced him crying aloud: "Alas, father, of what use is your piety? When will the gods help you?" Then turning to the Persians he said: "I implore you to burn me also, for I am as much your enemy as is my father." And the weeping youth begged to be led to the funeral pile. "I cannot outlive you, father," he said, "what hope remains for me in life? Since my birth I have only been a trouble to you and to myself; when you were fortunate I avoided you for shame of my defect, and now that you are unfortunate I have recovered my voice, but only that I may lament our disaster." The father admonishing his son not to despair, mounted the funeral pile, and the son lifting his hands toward heaven cried: "O Apollo and all the gods whom my father adores, come now to his aid and do not permit that piety should die with him." Saying this he tried to force his way to his father. Croesus was seated on the pile, and they relate that he prayed to Apollo to help him. The weather had been very cloudy, and when Croesus had prayed the sky suddenly became very black, there was thunder and lightning, and a heavy rain extinguished the flames of the funeral pile.

Thus Herodotus, Xenophon, and Nic. Damascenus, although disagreeing as to the circumstances of Croesus' capture, all make mention of the deaf-mute son of the great King of Lydia. Other authors, as the poet Bacchilide, made no mention of him, but relate the story of the sacrifice of Croesus and his salvation by Apollo.

Ctesias alludes to the fact of Croesus' son having played an important part in the capture of his father, but does not mention his deaf-mutism. From these various accounts of the episode, it is evident that the Florentine artist took the account of Nic. Damascenus for the subject of the beautiful allegory sculptured by him on the noble chimney-piece in the Bargello at Florence preserved. These three scenes sculptured are as follows: At the left is the son of Croesus, who implores Apollo to save his father, the God being represented with his bow and arrows; in the center is Croesus with his soldiers on the burning funeral pile, and above are dense clouds and the miraculous rain descending to extinguish the flames; at the right is Cyrus on his throne commanding the liberation of Croesus. The subject of this work of art has never been before explained, not even by Vasari.

This may be considered as one of the many legends relating to the miraculous cure of the dumb. Mr. Ferreri dedicates a special article to miraculous cures in ancient times in order to demonstrate that such was not the case of Croesus' son, and explains the legend as follows: Admitting that in the dramatic moment of the attempt on the life of Croesus, his deaf-mute son may have come to his aid with inarticulate cries which were interpreted as: "O man, do not kill Croesus!" For, as articulated speech cannot be acquired except with long practice, it cannot be understood literally that he continued to speak for the rest of his life; besides afterwards when Croesus spoke with Cyrus, he told him that the Oracle did not deceive him in regard to his sons, as one had *remained mute* and the other died in the flower of his youth.

It is an ascertained fact that the ancients did not think of a relation of cause and effect between deafness and mutism; that is, as respects poets and writers; the students of medicine had a more or less clear idea of this relation. It is also a curious fact that in Greek and Latin the words *deaf* and *dumb* are used indiscriminately for dullness of the senses or of the mind; but the reason of this is clear when we reflect that in every age language appeared to be the surest sign of human intelligence. The rational consequence has been from Justinian down that the deaf-mute has been considered stupid and dull.

In the present case the son of Croesus was certainly a veritable deaf-mute, and as such was of no possible use to his family, many years before.

Without pretending to give definite explanation of the episode, one must believe that the improvised speaking (Herodotus) and the later oratorical speech (Damascenus) of Croesus' deaf-mute son, is a poetical and pathetic legend originated by the fact of deaf-mutism in an intelligent person, and placed in evidence by many circumstances, among others that of the social position of the father, the premature death of the brother, the treaty with the enemy, and perhaps his own consignment as a hostage. From these circumstances joined to those of the capture, sacrifice, and salvation of Croesus are derived the literary embellishment rendered evident in the comparison of the various versions by the authors quoted.

In conclusion, all that seems historically true is the fact of deaf-mutism of Croesus' son, and the important fact for us, of the absolute abandonment in which the deaf were left by the ancients, on account of the prejudice they had that their defect separated them from social intercourse and reduced them to a non-value in practical life.—Condensed from the Educazione dei Sordomuti.

A SCIENTIFIC CONTRIBUTION TO THE SOLUTION OF TWO QUESTIONS.

The general statistics of the census, as well as those more particular ones in regard to the number of Deaf in the schools, demonstrate the fact that there are more males than females among the Deaf.

Although many explanations have been offered of this phenomenon, the question as yet remains unsolved. G. Ferreri, in comparing as follows some recent publications, has thought to bring a contribution towards the elucidation of this problem.

In a recent pamphlet "On the mortality due to congenital malformation," Raymond Pearl has studied the question whether or no man is more subject to irregular structure and its consequent anomalies than woman. Havelock Ellis has already replied in the affirmative to this question in his essay "Man and Woman." Mr. Pearl, in examining the statistics of the United States as to death caused by defects of structure, found the following data:

Mortality of males 1.469.

Mortality of females 1.226.

One must however take into account that there are a greater number of men than women living, but even then the relative excess of mortality must belong to the masculine sex.

But, according to Pearl, this does not prove that the masculine sex is more subject to alterations of structure; it might however prove that the defect is greater in degree in males than in females, which could be proved by the age at which death occurred, as the quicker a malformaton kills, the more intense it must be. The relative statistics however demonstrate that death due to congenital malformation occurs at the same age in both sexes. One cannot therefore reason that the conditions are more intense in males. What seems to be true, concludes Pearl, is that the sex more subject to anomalous structure shows less alteration in the same during life.

In conclusion, Pearl has not enlightened us much on this subject, owing perhaps to the fact that he considered only congenital anomalies. It is just on this point that the statistics are not exact nor positive.

The various average percentage which is attributed by the various investigators to congenital and acquired deafness is well known. One must therefore generalize, not specialize, in re-

search. And thus we find in a recent work of Pio Viazzi on the "Psychology of the Sexes" (Bib. di Scienze moderne) a good explanation of the greater frequency of anomalous structure in the male sex.

Here in brief are his conclusions:

1. From the most rudimental forms existing up to man, the female retains a certain organic superiority and a greater force of constitution.

2. In the higher as in the lower animals, the masculine type is far more variable.

3. The inferior character of the blood of women caused by the greater abundance of white globules, would seem to be an advantage over man, given the function of these ameboid particles in the conflict against the pathogenic micro-organisms which menace human life. Hence the relative immunity and greater resistance to infectious diseases shown by women.

4. Sickness is less frequent in women and their greater resistance to wounds and operations is a known fact, all this in relation to the less degree of sensibility in women as compared with men.

5. As to the ear, according to the observations of Autenrieth, its bony passage is narrower with an equal length, and this in relation to the smaller capacity of the brain, consequently it receives less sonorous waves of sound than that of man. One may refer to this circumstance the fewer injuries received from the introduction of extraneous substances.

Adding to these conditions the demonstrated biological inferiority of males, we have sufficient to find the explanation of the noted phenomenon, that in respect to deafness and deaf-mutism, the congenital and acquired anomalies are more frequent in the masculine than in the feminine sex.

Another question.

It is generally admitted with Helmholz that the membrane of the tympanum is not an apparatus of accommodation, or in other words, not capable of transmitting external vibrations in whatever condition it may be. Helmholz supports his theory on the negative results of Mach's experience in "Zur Theorie der Gehörorgans" (Wien, 1863), who tried in vain to discover an accommodation of the membrane, covering it with metal dust and examining it by means of a suitable lens.

The physiologists Hensen, Bockendahl, Pollak, and others, have demonstrated, it is true, that a contraction of the muscles of the tympanum occurs, corresponding to the tone acting upon the ear, but they did not believe that a real accommodation resulted from this, for Brücke in his "Vorlesungen über Physiologie"

even declares it useless for the perception of noises, that is to say, for the majority of the perceptions of hearing.

W. Heinrich now having discovered some interesting forms of visual accommodation which have an important part in the psychological mechanism of attention, (Zeitschrift für Psychologie und Physiologie der Sinnesorgane, vol. IX u. XI), was led to suppose that there were facts of the same kind in hearing.

Having ascertained that no vibration of the membrane of the tympanum is large enough to be seen with the miscroscope, he has applied a new method in his researches of which the description may be read in the *Revue Scientifique* (10 Fevrier, 1904) of the *Bulletin de l'Academie des sciences de Cracovie.*

We will limit ourselves to the principal results obtained, as follows:

1. The membrane of the tympanum does not vibrate in every state of tension for all sounds. For some of these a determined tension is required, which however varies with the variety of membrane, but in an unvariable manner for each one.

2. For each state of tension there is a fundamental tone of greatest activity; but the membrane does not only react at this fundamental tone, it reacts also at its harmonies and at the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth of the fundamental tone; the reactions of the fourth and fifth being stronger.

3. If the fundamental tones of each membrane are compared, and also the values of the corresponding tensions are compared, we ascertain that the height of the tones increases rapidly in geometrical progression, while the increase in the weights used for measuring the tension of the membrane of the tympanum is in arithmetical progression.

4. The analogous study of noises is more difficult owing to the analysis of their component sounds. However, for certain noises the membrane reacts more at a high tension; at every state of tension it reacts only for certain noises. Hence one may conclude that an accommodation of the membrane is necessary also for noises.

From a psychological point of view, the study of the mechanism of the tympanum is very important and merits the attention of educators.

As regards ourselves, we find here the experimental explanation of the results obtained as yet with the acoustic exercises in the schools for the Deaf. The phenomena observed in the practice of these exercises are explained as follows:

The accommodation of the membrane of the tympanum is made in the same manner as that of the eye, under the influence of a weak impression which excites the reflex accommodator, when

the mind is attentive to sounds and noises. The accommodation cannot be effected with a distracted mind and therefore it remains deaf to all that happens about it. We know that we can hear well one who speaks our own language, but in an unknown language not only we cannot understand but also do not hear him. This evidently depends on the circumstance that we have in our memory the images of the words pronounced, which facilitates the perception; but it is also probable that physiologically the hearing power is diminished; because we are not paying attention to what is said our tympanum does not accommodate itself with the necessary rapidity. On the other hand, when we know the subject of conversation, we can also guess what will be said and so make the accommodation in anticipation. These same observations apply also to the lip-reading of our pupils in regard to the accommodation of the eye, and therefore it is easy to explain the phenomenon of synthetic lip-reading of things known, and vice-versa of the difficulty in improvised passages.

We might also call to remembrance the fact that one can hear a person better looking him in the face, but this seems superfluous as so much has been written on the subject. Still this fact must not be forgotten if one wishes to use auricular teaching with success.—L'Educazione dei Sordomuti.

FREE OBJECT LESSONS AS A BASIS OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION IN SPEECH IN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The instruction of the deaf according to the German method has for its aim to restore to "speaking" humanity the deaf child who without such instruction would be excluded from intercourse by speech with his fellow beings. In the first place, the deaf, like all other human beings, are enabled to hold oral intercourse with their surroundings by a live conversational speech closely interwoven with their personal feelings, their will power, and thought. The most natural course to be pursued is, therefore, first to practice with the pupils the actual spoken conversational language of ordinary every day life. The hearing child acquires the necessary conversational speech mainly before entering school, in what may well be termed "the mother's school." As the deaf pupil possesses the same mental capacities as the hear-

ing child, and—with the exclusion of sound—lives in the same world, among the same surroundings, and occupies the same moral grade, the beginning of instruction in schools for the deaf should be a method resembling the mother's school. The special difficulties as regards perception and application of speech, caused by the natural failing of the deaf child, positively demand the most extensive exercise in the use of every day conversational speech, similar to what the mother's school supplies, in order that the pupil may freely show his personal interest in the objects of every day life, and be able to satisfy his personal craving for speech as regards the most natural affairs of life. The systematic object lessons, as at present followed in most of our schools for the deaf, the constructive instruction in the forms of speech, and finally the instruction in reading, which as a general rule is taken up much too early, do not sufficiently take regard to every day life, and to the personal affairs of the child. Consequently, the child does not acquire a live conversational speech, nor is the required desire for speech thoroughly awakened. The method by which these objects will be reached, may well be termed "free object lessons." The subjects of this instruction cannot be laid down systematically. The objects and events of every day life, more especially the personal events and occurrences in the life of the pupil, furnish sufficient matter for the teacher to speak about with his pupils. The form of this instruction should be free conversation. It embraces, with the exception of writing and of reading of what has been written, the entire internal and external activity which are necessary on the part of the teacher and of the pupil, for developing and effectively putting into practice the desire for speech, and for understanding, acquiring, and applying the spoken language. The teacher brings the objects to the notice of the pupils, makes them give their opinion, asks the pupils questions, replies to their questions, corrects, repeats, gives information, narrates, etc.; whilst the pupils must get a clear idea of the object, must pass an opinion, must reply, put questions, repeat what is said to them, and communicate occurrences in their every day life, etc. This free object instruction should occupy at least the three years of schooling following the year of instruction in articulation. With the exception of instruction in arithmetic, beginning with the 2nd or 3rd year, no special

study should be followed, besides the free object lessons, till the 4th year of schooling. Writing and reading of what has been written will serve to strengthen the conversational speech by written answering of questions, the writing down of short communications, stories, reports of the events of the day, postal cards, and letters. As regards printed communications it will be sufficient that the pupils acquire some practice in the reading of printed matter in German and Roman characters, so they may be able to read signposts, signs of firms, etc. Instruction in reading from a printed book should most decidedly be discouraged, as it is impossible to prepare a book which in all respects would meet the requirements of free object instruction, and as no time can be spared from said instruction. There is no need in this grade for separate instruction in the forms of speech, because the frequent repetition of the various situations and events used for the free exercises in speech, furnishes sufficient practice in the necessary elementary forms, fixes them in the minds of the pupils, and does this in a much more natural and beneficial manner than is done by a systematic instruction in the forms of speech. Events in nature and human life, more especially events in the life of the pupils, are to be utilized as far as possible in the interest of religious and moral education, and should serve as an effective preparation for the religious instruction which is to begin after the finished fourth year of schooling. With the fifth year, when the pupils have been properly prepared to receive instruction in special branches, religion, reading, composition, grammar, arithmetic, natural history, etc., all form the subjects of instruction. Free object instruction is continued in a more systematic manner following actual life as closely as possible (life in the institution, family life, life in town and country, etc.,) which gradually introduces the pupil to life in the community (trades, commerce, manufactures, post, telegraph, railroads, laws, police, government, military, etc.) Less stress should here be laid on the mass of knowledge acquired than on the retention and improvement of the conversational speech, the cultivation of which outside of school hours should form one of the most earnest aims of every institution. Small family-like boarding schools deserve the preference. Under all circumstances it should be the endeavor to have the pupils in the boarding school under the surveillance of pedagogically educated persons; and to cultivate in the day school a lively intercourse between the teachers and the persons in whose care the pupils are placed outside of school hours. In large boarding schools at least the two upper classes should be day scholars.—M. Schneider in Blätter für Taubstummenbildung.

APHASIA CAUSED BY MALARIA.

Dr. Hermann Gutzmann, Berlin, states that in October, 1903, a Mr. Sch., 28 years of age, was transferred to his care by the Urban hospital, for the treatment of complete aphasia. As his case is of special interest in many respects, a brief history of Mr. Sch.'s life is given. He was born on the 5th of August, 1875, in the Prussian Province of Westphalia, and attended school in his native town till his 15th year. After having followed practical studies in commercial science in a large business establishment in Germany, he went to South Africa in the year 1894, and soon obtained a place in the business of a German merchant in the Portuguese port of Beira. After having spent a year at Beira, he was placed in charge of a branch establishment of the same merchant, further inland, at a place called Blantyre. The journey by the Zambesi and Cherè rivers took 18 days. Although almost 4000 feet above the level of the sea, the climate of Blantyre was considered extremely unfavorable for Europeans. Nearly all the Europeans had monthly attacks of malarial fever, and about 36 per cent. annually succumbed to it. Mr. Sch. soon had a violent attack of the fever combined with dysentery, which left him in such a state of weakness that he had to be taken to the German hospital at Zanzibar, whence he was dismissed as completely cured on the 28th of April, 1896, and soon obtained a position in the Imperial German Government Office at Dar-es-Salam. During his stay at that place he had several attacks of malaria in 1898 and 1899 so that he had to go to the hospital, and also take a trip of recreation to Germany. On his return to Africa in 1900 he obtained employment at the German coast station of Pangani. At the end of October of the same year he went on a hunting expedition in the low regions of the Pangani river, and after a night spent in the open air in a dense fog rising from the river, and tortured by swarms of mosquitoes, he awoke the next morning with a violent fever, his urine at the same time assuming a dark bloody color. As there was no physician at Pangani, the hospital nurse stationed there, gave him—as quinine was strictly prohibited—arsenic in varying doses, also morphine and phenacetin in strong doses. Two days he was unconscious; during the following days he found that he had almost forgotten the language of the natives, of which he otherwise had entire command; he could only speak in a whisper, and words for certain objects had entirely left his memory. Often he could not speak at all, and could not even produce a sound, in the beginning

from sheer weakness; later on he had the feeling as if the sounds were smothered in the wind pipe. After a new attack of fever, he became so weak that he could not move a limb, and was in a semi-conscious condition. He knew and noticed everything that was going on around him, but could neither move nor speak. In 1901 he went on a trip to Germany, returning to Africa in April, 1902; but after renewed attacks of malaria, he was sent home to Germany in September, 1902, as unfit for service in a tropical country. In February, 1903, he again had violent attacks of fever; preparations from his blood showed "tertiary parasites" principally ring shaped; and after staying in two hospitals in Berlin, he was placed under the care of Dr. Gutzmann, who states that when Mr. Sch. came to him, spontaneous speech was gone entirely, he was not able to express even the simplest wish, and therefore had to have pencil and paper near his bed all the time. Reading aloud was impossible, but he could comprehend all that he read. Spontaneous writing was perfect, likewise copying. The diagnosis showed his ailment to be sub-cortical motorial aphasia, and a slight degree of amnestic aphasia, the presence of which was recognized only after a period of observation. The treatment consisted in the exercises usually followed in cases of aphasia. More especially breathing exercises had to be taken, because, particularly in the beginning, the spasms of breathing and of the voice were unusually strong and difficult to overcome. In breathing he was not able to strike correctly a simple vowel. By constant, patient exercises his breathing gradually became easier and there was a marked improvement in reading during the first month, and later also in his speech, although he showed a decided predilection for whispering. At present his condition is this that he can regularly repeat spoken words, that he can read aloud without any difficulty, and that in spontaneous speech it takes him a little while to get started, but that when this is done, he can converse with comparative ease. The real cause of his losing his faculty of speech is undoubtedly malaria, and it is safe to presume that thromboses of small arteries of the brain deprived portions of the brain of their functionary power.

Whilst cases of aphasia like the one described are often caused by poisons brought into the body from outside, e. g., belladonna, tobacco, opium, etc., numerous cases of aphasia have been observed as consequences of specifically feverish diseases, so to speak consequences of poisons produced by the body itself. Thus aphasia has been observed to follow typhoid fever, smallpox, measles, and yellow fever, or even diabetes.—Dr. H. Gutzmann in Medizinisch-pädagogische Monatsschrift für die gesammite Sprachheilkunde.

PLASTIC WORK IN CLAY AT THE CENTRAL INSTITUTION FOR THE DEAF AT MUNICH.

Since the year 1896 manual labor for the boys has formed part of the course of instruction, at first principally wood carving and pyrography. In 1896 a beginning was made with modeling, and soon proved such a success that the exhibition of works of the pupils held in December, 1901, and January, 1902, attracted universal attention, and created a more general interest in the matter.

As regards the value of instruction in modeling, Mr. Emil von Schenkendoff, the founder and presiding officer of the German Association, states that, as far as city schools are concerned, modeling in clay is most important. It possesses the greatest educational value of any manual labor. Clay and wax are soft and easily handled substances, and allow the worker in a comparatively short time to imitate correctly a great variety of objects. Clay, therefore, deserves the decided preference over harder materials, like wood, metal, stone, or pasteboard. Modeling in clay, moreover, requires but very few and simple tools. A person who has learned to mold the clay in all sorts of shapes has acquired the basis for modeling in any other material. This has long since been recognized in industrial and artistic circles; and many of our schools for wood carving commence their course of instruction with modeling in clay. The same applies to instruction in the trades of the carpenter, blacksmith, shoemaker, tailor, jeweler, etc. As regards modeling and its relation to artistic education it has been well said by Prof. K. Lange of the University of Tübingen, that modeling in clay is a highly important and absolutely necessary supplement of instruction in drawing. By its technical ease modeling acquires its artistic character, and approaches to drawing. The representation of geometrical bodies, which are better suited for paper and pasteboard, should be thrown in the background, and the foremost aim should be the imitation of natural objects, e. g., leaves, fruits, stuffed animals, etc. The close connection between nature and the free artistic individuality forms the sound and lasting basis of our modern style. The circumstance that objects of nature or industry are to be used exclusively as models, might lead some persons to suppose that it will be difficult to procure them, and that it will be impossible to follow a methodical course. This, however, is an error. We may distinguish three principal groups of models. First, those which we might term permanent models:

e. g., marbles, balls, chains, beans, almonds, candles, cigars, dice, books, small baskets, weights, cans, bottles, and vases; also corn-ears, various shells, pine burs, etc. The second group comprises natural objects which can at any time be easily procured, e. g., potatoes, apples, pears, eggs, onions, lemons, turnips, carrots, cucumbers, sausages, bread, and stuffed animals from the little museum connected with the institution. The third group comprises leaves and flowers. Unless used in their fresh condition, leaves of trees and plants are gathered in autumn, not pressed, but simply dried in the shade and kept in boxes. When needed, hot water is poured over them, just as if tea was to be made, and they are allowed to stand for about a day. Thereby they gain their original fresh form. Natural clay will under all circumstances be the best material for modeling. Artificial clay, so-called "plastilin," is recommended by many persons. It never grows hard during the time it is worked, which certainly is an advantage, but the objects are difficult to preserve when finished. The clay should be kept in a pot or tub, well covered, and from time to time sprinkled with water. If it has become too moist, it is laid for some hours in the open air on slates. The tools are exceedingly cheap, and some of them can be made by the pupils themselves. Every pupil needs a modeling-support, either a board, a stone plate, or a piece of oil cloth; best however a large piece of smooth slate; 2 spatulas, a modeling sling, a rag, and a blouse to protect the clothes. Each class has moreover a closet for keeping unfinished work, one for finished work, a box or tub for the clay, working tables, some pasteboard frames, wire for cutting the clay, knives, some wooden laths, water basins, and sponges. The various kinds of modeling are: rolling of ball shaped forms, rolling of cylinder shaped forms, pulling, building, cutting forms out of the clay, representation in relief. A description of a modeling lesson at the Munich institution will best serve to illustrate the method followed: 24 boys —age 4 to 7—march in pairs into the modeling hall, a large well-lighted room in the basement, in which four long tables are placed in the most favorable light. The boys take their blouses from the hooks and put them on. On the wall of the room stand two closets, one of which contains 12 partitions each bearing the names of two pupils; over the names of each lies a slate and a box with the tools. The slates of Section B are empty, for their work was finished during the last lesson. Section A has to model an open book, and has covered the half-finished work with wet rags. Today Section B will model a leaf of ivy. Laths are fastened to the broad sides of the tables with vice-pins, and the pupils then place their slates in position. The teacher gives to

each pupil a tolerably large lump of clay for forming the support; and then gathers the pupils round himself. Each holds his ivy-leaf in his hand. The teacher gives a short explanation of the leaf and of the plant of which it is a part, and also of the first sketch in clay. Each scholar then goes to his place and begins the work. In doing this they stand at the tables and have before them the slate with the clay either in a horizontal position or somewhat inclined by placing the tool box underneath. Each pupil puts his leaf of ivy in the upper left hand corner in a position in which, when modeled, it will in his opinion, appear to the greatest advantage. By tiny lumps of clay he raises or depresses the leaf, and fixes the stem in an immovable position. From the wall he takes a small pasteboard frame, and thereby encircles his model so as to form a pleasing picture. The teacher now goes round to correct and improve the position of the model, which shows the degree of artistic taste of each pupil. In the same position in which the leaf lies, the pupil draws his sketch further down. He then receives a lump of clay about the size of a fist, and commences the work of modeling, taking the utmost care from the beginning to reproduce the outlines of the leaf clearly and sharply, special care being devoted to the ribs of the leaf. When finished, he again takes up the pasteboard frame, and places it round the work, so that the leaf appears to lie quite naturally and as if accidentally thrown there. The final corrections are then made, the work is finished and the size of the plinth is determined by drawing a line following the inside of the frame. The frame is taken away, and with a broad knife held perpendicularly the plinth is cut out. On the back the pupil marks, with a pointed piece of wood, his name, class, and date when done; the work is then placed on a wire frame or board to dry. The slate and the tools are cleaned and put back in their place in the closets, the pupils wash their hands, hang up their blouses, and leave the hall, which is then carefully swept, the floor being previously sprinkled, so that no dust can lie.—Report by Mr. Hans Wild, teacher at the Munich Institution for the Deaf.

EDUCATION FOR SPEAKING.

The human voice has for centuries been treated, as far as its education is concerned, in Germany in a very stepmotherly way. In our days the better education of the human voice becomes in many cases an absolute necessity, and a systematic method should be followed. The neglect of the human voice begins already in the nursery, and is continued in the school. The classic nations

of antiquity, the Greeks and Romans, followed a very different course. Their orators, whose speeches even at this day elicit our admiration and form our models, by a systematic education learned to govern their voice, their breathing, and the technicalities of the motion of the tongue. During the middle ages this fell into neglect; and only in comparatively recent years attention has been directed to the matter, especially in France, England, and America. The education of the voice should begin with breathed vowels, followed by consonants, then vowels in connection with consonants, consonant combinations, and finally a number of consonants placed together. Regarding the question, how the advantages of a good voice education can be made the common property of all people, it is said an actual improvement of the pronunciation, a common and effective effort for a more lofty, well ordered mode of expression, one that is suitable to our modern development of speech, can be effected only through the school. The most important requirement is, therefore, a suitable phonetic training of the teachers, so they may become models for their pupils.—Review of Die Erziehung zum Sprechen—education for speaking—by Dr. W. Berg, Leipizig—in Medizinitch-pädagogische Monatsschrift für die gesammte Spracheilkunde.

THE FIFTH SCANDINAVIAN CONGRESS, RELATING TO THE CARE OF THE BLIND, THE DEAF, THE WEAK-MINDED, AND IDIOTIC.

One of the striking features of this Congress, held at Stockholm, July 6-10, 1903, which was attended by teachers from the Scandinavian countries and Finland, was the very rich and admirably arranged exhibition of articles of manual labor which had been prepared by the pupils in the various institutions and asylums. They were arranged in four great groups, viz., articles made: 1, by cripples and lame persons; 2, by deaf; 3, by blind; 4, by weak-minded and idiots. The deaf of course claim our special attention. The exhibition of the Institution at Wenersborg, Sweden, whose director Dr. Nordin is well known far beyond the confines of his own country, was unquestionably the finest of all; and it will, therefore, not be out of place to give some idea regarding the course of instruction in that institution.

Instruction in manual labor commences as soon as pupils enter the institution. During the first two years boys and girls

are instructed in common, and preparatory manual labor is taught according to the Kindergarten method. At the close of the second year (in Wenersborg pupils are received only every other year) the pupils had made doll-furniture from paste board, stuffed balls, embroidered table-mats, and similar articles. This instruction is given by a lady-teacher specially trained for such work. The number of lessons is 10 per week, one of which has the character of play, and the time occupied is 8½ hours. Beginning with the second class (the third year) girls and boys are instructed separately, in manual labor, 7½ hours a week distributed over 5 lessons. During the 3rd and 4th years the boys are immediately employed in wood work; and, in view of the comparatively tender age of the pupils, this is not yet what we might term carpenters' work. In the beginning the boys use only a knife, a file, and sand paper. They produce, amongst the rest, holders for brushes and pens, wooden butter-knives, handles for hammers, etc. Beginning with the fifth year a carpenter takes charge of the manual instruction. The articles made by the pupils are more and more of a practical description, and are made for use in the household of the institution. In 1902, moreover, 7 boys took lessons, in the workshops of the institution, from a shoemaker, and 9 from a tailor. The girls in the middle grade do plain sewing, darning, and mending; excellent work had also been done in the embroidering of monograms. In the upper grade tailoring is principally taught. The girls learn to take measure, draw patterns, and cut; also weaving. All the girls are also instructed in domestic and kitchen work, and the boys in work in the garden and field. Two institutions deserve special mention: the preparatory school for the deaf at Gotthenburg, for deaf children from the age of 3 to 8; and 2, the private institution at Hjorted for weak-minded deaf. The institution has at present 17 pupils who are instructed according to the written and sign method. The boys produce wood work articles; whilst the activity of the girls is principally devoted to weaving and knitting. The Finland institutions devote a great deal of time and attention to instruction in manual labor, and the results to judge from the exhibition at Stockholm, are exceedingly gratifying. It is well known that great attention is paid in all Scandinavian countries to the practical education of the deaf; and a number of interesting papers specially relating to this subject were read by delegates to the Congress. Among the papers read should be mentioned: 1. Instruction of the deaf who have left school, by Prof. Hansen of the Fredericia (Denmark) Institution. In Denmark a three weeks' course for adult deaf is held every year at the Fredericia Institution. In Sweden a two weeks' course is held every year

at Wenersborg. In 1902, 44 deaf participated in said course, who—in two divisions—had six hours' instruction each day in religion, the mother tongue, arithmetic, history, and geography. In the free instruction in the mother tongue the subjects were invariably taken from the events of the day, political and otherwise. Board and lodging is supplied free of charge by the institution. During the first week those teachers gave instruction who on account of their pupils being prepared for confirmation, had leisure; during the second week—which was already a vacation week—they received a special remuneration. The course in 1902 closed with a divine service attended by 244 deaf, and the celebration of the communion. 2. The Norwegian agricultural school for deaf at Sandefjord, by Prof. Boyssen. A collection throughout Norway had realized the sum of 35,000 Kroner ($9380.00), which was sufficient to buy a fine farm, and Prof. Boyssen was appointed Director. Although the school commenced operations only quite recently, the number of pupils is 7, there are prospects of more coming and the future of the school is assured. The admission of pupils, the course of instruction, etc., are regulated by statutes approved by the Norwegian Government.—Extract from report by Prof. H. Stelling of Emden, Germany.

THE PREPARATORY SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF AT GOTTENBURG, SWEDEN.

In June, 1902, the interest of certain funds became available for the purpose; and on the 1st of September instruction took its beginning in two infant schools of the city. Only 4 pupils, however, applied, two in each school. One boy finally stayed away because his parents would not let him travel by himself the long distance from their house to the school. The one pupil remaining in the one school, was then transferred to the other. Soon, however, another pupil was received, thus again raising the total number to 4. Gottenburg is presumed to have at least 10 deaf children between the ages of 3 and 8; and the reason why the school was not better attended must be sought in the circumstance that it had not become sufficiently known, and that the means were lacking to supply proper supervision and board outside of school hours. As it was, however, the results have been satisfactory. Instruction was given for three hours—10.00 A. M. till 1.30 P. M.—every day; the rest of the school day (lasting from 8 A. M. till 4 P. M.) the deaf children spend together and

with the other normally endowed pupils of the infant school, numbering more than one hundred. All the children play together and enjoy themselves thoroughly, engaged in all sorts of games. It was a pleasure to observe how the deaf children enter into the spirit of the games and appear to feel thoroughly at home among their hearing comrades. Twice a week the pupils receive a meal at the school. During the hours of instruction the deaf children are in a room by themselves, where the teachers engage their attention and develop their powers of observation and reflection in many different ways. At first various games are played, and picture books are shown. After some time spent in this way, kindergarten work is taken up. Also gymnastic exercises on a small scale are gone through, with purely methodical exercises, and articulation, as well as reading (not writing) of various letters and about 10 words, names of articles in which the child takes an interest. Whenever it was possible short walks were taken in some of the parks of the city, where they saw the trees and bushes spring out, where they could watch the swans swimming on the lakes and feed them; in visiting some large poultry yards, they learned to distinguish the chickens, turkeys, geese, ducks, pigeons, and peacocks; the museum with its many stuffed animals became for them a large picture book; on the wharves they saw the steamers come and go; and on the Lindholm wharf they saw how ships were built. From the boat on which they occasionally took a short trip on the fjord, they watched the white crested waves. All of these were new experiences, many of which, upon their return to the school-room, they could verify in their picture books. Two of the pupils, who were suffering from a scrofulous affection, were, at the expense of the school, sent to the sea shore for several weeks during summer.—Nordisk Tidskrift för Döfstumskolan.

RETIREMENT OF A VETERAN TEACHER OF THE DEAF.

On the 1st of April, 1904, Mr. J. G. Jörgensen, the Director of the well known Institution for the Deaf at Fredericia, Denmark, retired from active duty, owing to the condition of his health, after 23 years work in the cause of the education of the deaf. Mr. Jörgensen has left his impress on the education of the deaf in Denmark, and his work is favorably known far beyond the confines of his country. Although men like Dahlerup and

Keller had been ardent advocates of the speech method in Denmark, Jörgensen is the one who thoroughly organized instruction on this basis and carried the speech method through in its purity, without having recourse to the sign-language, and, since 1881, when the Fredericia Institution was organized, raised a large staff of both male and female teachers who are fully prepared to take up his work. It may not be amiss in this connection to give a short sketch of the Frederica Institution situated on the east coast of Jutland on the Little Belt. When entering you find yourself in a beautiful light vestibule ornamented with the busts of the King and Queen of Denmark. On the wall towards the dining hall there are two marble tablets, the one stating that the institution was founded in the 17th year of the reign of King Christian IX.; whilst the other bears the words from the Old Testament: "The ears of the deaf shall be unstopped and the tongue of the deaf shall sing" (Isaiah xxxv: 5 and 6). What rich promise do these words of scripture bring to the poor deaf, who miss so much of what is beautiful in life.

And as everything which shall be made perfect in another and better life, takes its beginning already here in this world, thus it is also as regards the fulfilment of the beautiful words quoted above. What formerly seemed an impossibility, actually happens: the mute begin to speak. True, the bridge between them and their fellow men is not built in the usual way; for the lost hearing cannot be restored; but another connection is made: from the lips the deaf read the speech of other men and they are brought on a level with them.

Let us take a stroll through the building! In the middle of the first floor we find the chapel ornamented with a beautiful painting: Christ healing the deaf. Here the pupils assemble every day for morning prayer and regular services are held on Sundays and festival days. On the first floor are the recitation rooms and large workshops. The desks of the pupils are arranged in a semi-circle, so that all can plainly see the mouth of the teacher. In the workshops the pupils spend their free time whenever they are not engaged in games in the open air. Here the boys are instructed in wood carving and other useful trades; whilst the girls are taught to sew, darn, and embroider.

On the second floor are the large dormitories, toilet rooms, and teachers' rooms. It should be stated here that of the 200 pupils those of the first two years live in the institution, whilst those of the six following years board and live at different private homes in the city. This is considered extremely beneficial for their development, not the least as regards practice in speech. Director Jörgensen has made his mark in the education of the

deaf. With an unusual degree of energy and devotion he has given his life to the work and has inspired his able staff of teachers, 12 in number, with true enthusiasm; so that the Frederica Institution, as all foreigners who have visited it will gladly testify, occupies a front rank among similar institutions in Europe. As he now retires to a well earned rest, the best wishes of his teachers and pupils follow him, hoping that he may spend a calm and happy evening of his life, in the company of his faithful wife, who has been his helpmate in the great and good work.—Smaablade for Dövstumme.

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE FOR THE DEAF IN ICELAND.

Far out in the stormy North Atlantic lies the rugged volcanic Island of Iceland, colonized more than a thousand years ago by hardy Norsemen, and now forming a part of the Danish monarchy. The first attempt to found a school for the deaf was made in 1867, by the Rev. Pall Palson, who had spent several months at the Royal Institution for the deaf at Copenhagen, with the view to become acquainted with the method of instruction. He wrote a Bible history for the deaf, and gathered a few deaf pupils at his parsonage. But unfortunately he was drowned a few years afterwards when crossing one of the cold streams of Iceland; and with his death all efforts in that direction came to an end. Finally the Government took hold of the matter and in 1891 sent Rev. Helgason to Copenhagen in order to gain a practical insight into the instruction of the deaf. Mr. Helgason was at the time only 24 years old, and with all the hope and enthusiasm of youth devoted himself to his task. Although coming to Copenhagen as a perfect stranger he soon made many friends inside and outside the institution by his true Icelandic amiability and cordiality so that the younger pupils looked up to him as to an older brother. After spending about half a year in Denmark he returned to Iceland with his betrothed who had accompanied him on the trip. From the very beginning the Lord's blessing rested on his work. From a very small beginning his school eventually numbered 12 pupils, all that his small parsonage could accommodate. He succeeded in training two female teachers to aid him in his work. When his first born died, he wrote to a friend in Denmark: "The deaf are my children! and a feeling of sadness filled his heart when the first pupils who had finished their course left his school. He did a noble work, which will be taken up by others; for we must

record the sad fact that on the 19th of February, 1904, he died on board the steamer Laura which should take him to Copenhagen, where he intended to find a cure for heart disease. His body was received and tenderly cared for by his Danish friends, to be returned to Iceland there to rest in his native soil. His name will forever remain a blessed memory among the deaf of that distant island; and the work begun by him will be taken up by his faithful teachers. Helgason will always be considered as the pioneer in the education of the deaf in Iceland.—Smaablade for Döytumme.

CITY OR COUNTRY.

The question has often been asked whether it is more advantageous for the deaf to live in the city or in the country. It cannot be denied that the choice of a residence is in most cases not left to the individual but follows the force of circumstances. And then, again, some feel more at home in the bustling life of a city, whilst others naturally prefer the peaceful quiet of the country. Most deaf are by the force of circumstances undoubtedly compelled to live in cities, principally on account of the greater ease for gaining a livelihood, or of the greater chances for an industrial or artistic career. Apart from this, the silent person, the deaf, seeks to forget and flee the loneliness to which nature has condemned him; and reaches this aim by viewing the busy, bustling life of a great city, the magnificent stores, the luxurious cafes and restaurants. But what fills the vacancy in his life, and wakens hope and joy in his heart, is the cultivation of sociability. It is the sunshine of his life. The school has loosened his tongue, and given wings to his mind. Nevertheless, he remains an unsocial being. When in the society of hearing persons, he feels it but too deeply, that his mind cannot find there a fructifying soil; he constantly becomes conscious of the fact that frequently he is only a subject of pity. In order not to appear obtrusive, he modestly keeps in the background, and left to himself becomes truly lonely. People in large cities pass each other without paying attention to each other. Frequently a person does not know or care for the joys and sorrows of his neighbor. Therefore, the associations of the deaf become such a blessing in large cities. Considering all the circumstances, we much reach the conclusion that life in a city offers great advantages to the deaf as regards the earning of a living, and scientific and artistic improvement.

A poetically endowed mind, will, however, praise the country with its forests and fields. The idyllic repose of the country seems to be the reflection of the soul of the deaf. Therefore it appears as a strange contradiction that most deaf become mentally dull and even stupid in the country. The contradiction is easily explained. Only among intelligent and genial surroundings can the heart and mind of the deaf be educated and uplifted. But how sad is his lot when thrown among rude and uncultivated men! The simplicity, kindliness, and honesty of the country people is a legend frequently found only in novels. In our day they look upon their visitors as upon legitimate prey and a source of income. No wonder if the deaf is seized by a longing to escape from the silent valleys and sunny heights, and again tread the narrow, noisy streets of the city. Happy he who possesses a strong mind, and supplies it constantly with good and wholesome food from books and newspapers. He is not lost whose memory basks in the sunshine of better days and unforgotten friends, and who keeps alive the feeling of his own worth. Wherever he may be, in the city or the country, his life will be a mentally healthy and contented one. As regards the aged deaf, it is probably better for them to spend the evening of their life among the quiet and peaceful surroundings of the country than in the noise and bustle of the city.—Taubstummen-Courier, Vienna.

A NEW BUILDING NEEDED AT THE NORTHAMPTON SCHOOL TO MAKE POSSIBLE AN ENLARGEMENT OF ITS NORMAL TRAINING WORK.

President Franklin Carter, in the last Annual Report of the Northampton school, makes a strong plea for a new building, which will not only make possible an enlargement of the general scholastic work of the school, but will also give ample facilities for the important work the school is doing in giving normal training to teachers by the oral method. It is most gratifying to note that it is a part of the plan of the management that future classes, when it may be possible to enlarge them, will be open to young men as well as to young women, and that they will be offered inducements to enter the school in order to secure training for teaching by the oral method. The following is taken from President Carter's report upon the subject:

This school greatly needs an ample building, well heated, well lighted, and well ventilated, with rooms fitted with every appliance for instruction, and also containing a large general assembly-room, a building that should cost at present prices not less than two hundred thousand dollars, and should worthily express the large foresight of the founders, and the great results wrought here in the pupils by faithful and heroic teachers. At least one room in this building should be devoted to the normal class, a class which we should be glad to see increased and made a more conspicuous feature of our school. We have had this year an application from an educated Hindoo to become a student of our methods at our expense, which we were obliged partially to decline, though we did offer him free tuition. He desired to fit himself more perfectly for the principalship of a school in India, to which position he had already been appointed.

This incident opened to our thought the possibility of largely increasing the influence of our school which we could easily effect, if we were not constantly limited by the lack of funds. It also suggested to us the question whether the time had not come for offering inducements to young men to enter our school in order to secure training for teaching the oral method. It is undoubtedly true that the best results are secured under all methods by beginning the instruction of children at an early age. Certainly a child not over seven years old would gain proficiency more rapidly from the start than a child five, or even three years older. This is peculiarly true under the oral method, as the passage of every year diminishes the flexibility of the organs, and the power of imitation. If deaf children then are to begin the mastery of speech at an early age, women should be the first teachers. Furthermore, it is wise, as long as a majority of the children are under fourteen years of age, that a wise woman should have the management of the school. But it seems reasonable that for older pupils, especially in the larger state institutions, and in certain day-schools where the age greatly varies, and pupils are often entered too old to secure the best results, men should be chosen to do part of the teaching of speech and speech-reading. There is a scarcity of male teachers of the oral method in the United States as compared with the foreign schools; the percentage of women teachers is far greater. It is true the same difference exists in our schools for normal children as compared with theirs, but the career of the teacher of deaf-mutes is one of great usefulness, and, we believe, may open the way to high distinction. Bright and well educated men in this calling would add much in the country at large to the popularity and effectiveness of teaching speech by speech.

The advanced teachers in the Clarke School are perfectly fitted for their work and secure admirable results. There would be a fitness in so enlarging the normal class in this pioneer school that a number of college men should each year receive instruction and practice here, and choosing for their own this beneficent work should devote to it the influence of the highest training. This great service, which we should be glad to render, our poverty makes it impossible for us to undertake. As special guardians of the normal schools which provide teachers for the children of the Commonwealth, we respectfully ask for this suggestion your careful consideration.

THINK ABOUT IT.

President Eliot says, substantially, that a teacher who does not discharge her pupils at the end of each year much more unlike in powers and acquisitions than they were at the beginning of the year, is a proved failure.

Think about it, my fellow teachers. I have thought about it. I closed my book when I had read this statement. It was all I could carry. I haven't stopped thinking about it yet; and my thinking has changed my attitude with respect to the bright pupil. I see from a different view-point. The bright pupils and the dull pupils are alike entitled to the best I can give them. I must do that which is most helpful for each. I must not make the bright pupils mark time, or leave the dull ones to struggle alone in the darkness. If I err on either side, it would better be in giving more than their share of my time to those who most need my assistance. But while doing my full duty towards those who are by some misfortune handicapped, "born short,"—Heaven help them and help me not to forget them—I must also do my share in disproving the statement of a pessimistic educationist who declares that,—"The public schools are the creation of mediocrity for the perpetuation of mediocrities." Individual instruction and frequent regrouping for class instruction, will save us from losing sight of the pupil while looking at the class; will help us properly to apportion our time among pupils of varying capacity.

If the too frequent use of the pronoun *I* seems to disfigure the above, will the reader kindly pass over the defect? This is a personal matter with me—a *first* personal matter—and *I* have written as *I* have felt. Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh and the pen writeth.—Frank H. Hall in The School News and Practical Educator.

BOOKS, PERIODICALS, AND REPORTS.

Memoria del Instituto de Ninas sordomudas correspondiente al ano 1902. Buenos Aires. [Report of the National Institution for deaf girls at Buenos Aires for the fiscal year 1902].

Maria Ana McCotter de Madrazo, the Principal of the National Institution for deaf girls at Buenos Aires, gives a particularized account of the onward march of the Normal School for training the teachers of the Deaf. The report also contains the official correspondence between the Governments of the Argentine and the Uruguay Republics on the admission and support of six girls in the Normal School.

The number of pupils in the schools of this Institution was 52 last year. The accounts of the administration as well as those of the teaching, education, and work departments were quite satisfactory.

The pamphlet is finely illustrated and contains many statistical tables showing the movement of the pupils in the various departments.

L' Educazione dei Sordomuti [The Education of the Deaf,] edited by G. Ferreri. Nos. 4 and 5. April and May, 1904.

Contents: I. "New Life," by C. Lazzerotti. "The reforms of our Institutions" and "The Laws of Psychology and Physiology on the formation of movements, etc.," by P. Fornari. "The deaf son of Croesus and miraculous cures in ancient times," by G. Ferreri. Scientific review. Reports and summaries.

II. "And Italy ?" by G. Ferreri. "How the exercise of dictation should be given in the schools of the Deaf," by T. Mannelli. "The Deaf in Society," (a lecture by Arendt, issued in "The Organ" and condensed by G. Ferreri). Bibliography, Editorial comments, etc.

Inrichting voor Doofstomen-Onderwijs te Rotterdam. Verslag over het Vijftigste jaar van haar bestaan 1902–1903, met Bijlagen [Institution for the Deaf at Rotterdam, Holland. Report for the 50th year from its foundation, with documents of the Administration for the fiscal year 1902–1903].

This is the first report of the famous Institution of David Hirsch, which is published under the direction of M. Fehmers, the Principal, who last year took the place of the late Bikkers.

The number of pupils was 141, i. e., 84 boys and 57 girls. The results of the literary and manual instruction were good for the majority of the pupils.

Vierundneunzigste Rechenschaft uber die Zuricherische Anstalt fur Blinde und Taubstummen 1902–1903. Der Tit. Zurcherischen Hulfsgesellschaft und den Fremden der Anstalt, abgelegt von der Vorsteherschaft. Zurich, 1903. [The 94th Report of the Institute in Zurich for the Blind and for the Deaf, 1902–1903. Etc.]

Mr. Kull adds to the Annual Report of this charitable Institution, his valuable lecture on the "Ecclesiastical care of the adult Deaf." This is a question of general interest in the northern countries of Europe, and Mr. Kull's experience will certainly be an important contribution for the solution of this question.

The number of pupils now in the school of Zurich is 68, of whom 11 are blind and 57 deaf. 44 deaf pupils were in the boarding school, the others were only day-scholars. Mr. Kull observes that in the more advanced classes, the day-scholars show a more rapid development of their intelligence than the others, especially in regard to the learning of familiar and idiomatic language.

Rassegna della Educazione dei Sordomuti [Review of the Education of the Deaf,] edited by Prof. E. Scuri. March, 1904.

The editor writes a thoughtful article: "On the question of practical training in the Normal school at Milan," on purpose to demonstrate the necessity of reforming the present program of this school, and of giving a greater part to practical exercises for the future teachers of the Deaf.

G. Ferreri continues his important study about the "Imperfections of speech and the oral teaching of the Deaf."

This number also contains some reviews of our special press and an account of a lecture which G. Ferreri delivered in Palermo on the subject "Miss Helen Keller."

Kokugo Hatsuon Shinan [Guide to the Pronunciation of Japanese], by S. Isawa, Tokyo, Japan.

The author, in a personal letter to Alexander Graham Bell, describes his work thus: "The book is, as you will see, a trans-symbolization of a Japanese Reader into Visible Speech characters, with introductory remarks of that system and its applications."

In forwarding the letter to us Dr. Bell himself writes of Mr. Isawa and the work he is doing in Japan as follows: "Mr. Isawa was a pupil of mine in Boston back in the seventies, and was much interested in visible speech. He has since become a prominent man in Japan, and I believe he was at one time Minister of Education, if indeed he does not still hold that position. When Formosa was annexed to Japan, Mr. Isawa was sent to the Island as Commissioner of Education. He is a scientific man and especially interested in the whole subject of phonetics. To him largely is due the teaching of speech in the Japanese schools for the deaf, and he is now interested in a Japanese movement to reform the written language of Japan. The Japanese still employ Chinese writing although they have modified the Chinese characters to produce a phonetical representation of the language. Dialectal characters, however, in Japan, are so marked that natives of different provinces can hardly understand one another by word of mouth. The written language is simply impossible for Europeans and Americans to understand. The Japanese have seriously under contemplation a complete change in their written language and a reform party is split into two factions, one advocating the adoption of Roman letters and the other the adoption of a special phonetical alphabet based upon scientific principles. Of this latter party Mr. Isawa is the leader and he proposes the adoption of visible speech. He has already written a work upon the subject which I think has been reviewed or noticed in the REVIEW.[1] The new work he now forwards is a Japanese Reader designed to familiarize the Japanese with visible speech representation of their language. Writing exercises are given in Japanese characters on one page and the equivalent pronunciation in visible speech symbols on the opposite page."

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[1]See REVIEW, Vol. 5, No. 4, p. 395.

A reading exercise from the book—as printed first in Japanese, then in the equivalent Visible Speech characters—is shown below:

尋常國語讀本 甲種 卷一

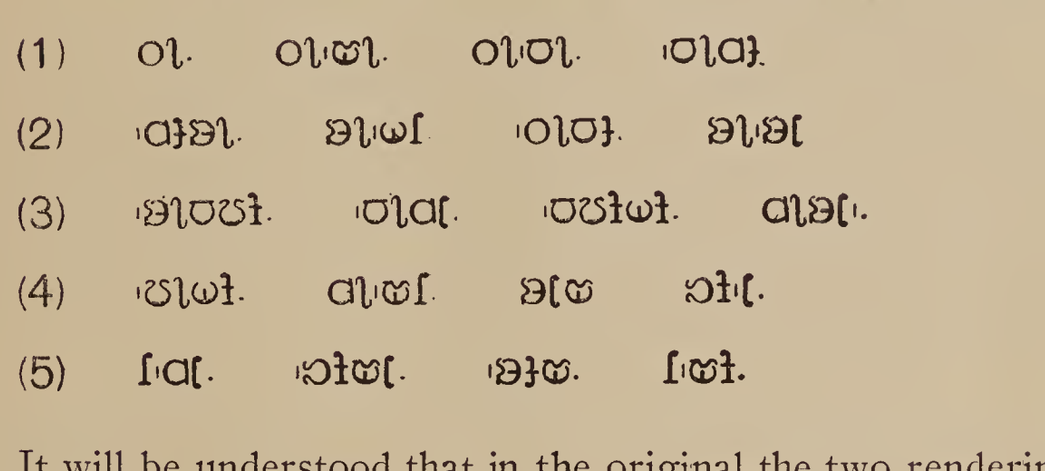
(1) ハ。 ハナ。 ハタ。 タコ。

(2) コマ。 マリ。 ハト。 マメ。

(3) マツ。 タケ。 ツル。 カメ。

(4) サル。 カニ。 メン。 フエ。

(5) イケ。 フネ。 モン。 イヌ。



It will be understood that in the original the two renderings were printed upon opposite pages.

Mr. Isawa states the specific objects he has in mind, in the publication of his "Guide to the Pronunciation of Japanese," as follows:

"1st. To unify the pronunciation of Japanese throughout the country, for there are at present so many varied dialects that the speech of the northmost people can hardly be understood by the southmost people.

"2nd. To correct provincial dialects as above, by referring to this work. There is no authority at present upon Japanese pronunciation which may be regarded as standard. The pronunciation adopted in the work is the prevalent pronunciation used in the learned circle of Tokyo, the capital city.

"3rd. To make learned persons in our country familiar with Visible Speech, so they may understand the advantage that it possesses over a Roman alphabet, especially when it is applied to a language which has never used the latter alphabet. Every unbiased person will at once appreciate how Visible Speech symbols are rational, and therefore will be understood easily by any person of whatever nationality he may be. You may perhaps know that a body of commissioners was lately constituted by our government whose duty it is to make research into the Japanese language with the object of its improvement or reformation if necessary. Now most of them are inclined to adopt the Roman alphabet instead of Japanese kana, or the more difficult Chinese characters. I opine that to adopt the Roman letters is no doubt an improvement, but why not adopt visible speech symbols which are far more rational and more easily learned. I insist on this opinion, but I am sorry to say that there is no person in the whole of Japan, other than myself, who has studied visible speech so as to prove its efficacy and to convince the public. Let time resolve the problem.

"4th. To make the study of Japanese easier for foreigners."

Mr. Isawa has given in his book an exceedingly clear exposition of the subject, evident in the plan of the work and in the numerous illustrations or diagrams of the vocal organs in the various positions for the pronunciation of the elements of speech, with the written characters, both Japanese and Visible Speech, in direct association with them.

English Visible Speech and its Typography Elucidated. By Alexander Melville Bell. Reprinted from the British and Colonial Printer and Stationer. Washington. 1904.

This is another, the 39th, of the admirable and useful series of "Reprints of Useful Knowledge," issued by the Volta Bureau, Washington, D. C. As the pamphlet, by courtesy of the author, Prof. A. Melville Bell, and of the Volta Bureau, is to be sent to the members of the Association, further review here is omitted.

The American Annals of the Deaf, Washington, May, 1904.

The contents of this number are as follows: "John G. Brown," by Dr. William N. Burt; "Three Years of Language—I," by Mabel Ellery Adams; "Observation Notes on the Clarke

School," by Myrtle M. Long; "The Education of Deaf-Blind Children in the New York Institution;" "Language through the Grades," by Katharine F. Reed; "The Industrial Training of the Deaf," by P. L. Richardson; "Some Phases of Child Development," by Jennie L. Cobb; "Life Insurance for the Deaf," by Albert C. Gaw; "A Significant Word from Germany," by Dr. Edward M. Gallaudet; "The Deaf in Hearing Schools and in Day-Schools," by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter; "Oral Work at the St. Louis Exposition," by the Committee; "The Meeting of the Department of Special Education, N. E. A., St. Louis, 1904," by John W. Jones; "The International Congress of the Deaf at St. Louis, 1904," by the Committee. Notices of Publications. School Items.

The Teacher of the Deaf, Stoke-upon-Trent, England, May, 1904.

The following is the table of contents of this number: "To our Readers," by the Editors; "The Deaf in Ireland;" "Helen Keller, a Few Notes," by A. Farrar, Jr.; "The Strange Management of the New Brunswick School;" "The Deaf Child's Mind," by J. G. Shaw; "The Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools;" "Preparation for Language Teaching," by Susanna E. Hull; "Problematic Arithmetic," by R. Phipps; "Scheme for Instruction (Tailoring)," by P. A. Dodds; "Notes from the Schoolroom," by P. A. Dodds; Our Study Table; Books and Periodicals; Home and Foreign Notes; School News; "Report of the N. A. T. D. Executive Meeting," by F. Driscol.

Received.

Eighty-fifth Annual Report of the New York Institution for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, 1903.

Thirty-eighth Report of the Georgia School for the Deaf, at Cave Spring, 1903.

Report of Proceedings of the Seventh Convention of the Minnesota Association of the Deaf, at Red Wing, July 2-6, 1903.

Thirty-sixth Annual Report of the Clarke School for the Deaf at Northampton, Mass., 1903.

Triennial Report of the North Stafford Blind and Deaf School, Stoke-upon-Trent, England, 1901.

EDITORIAL COMMENT.

A RECENT VISIT TO SOUTHERN SCHOOLS.

It was the writer's privilege and pleasure recently to make a tour of the south-eastern states, visiting schools for the deaf in that section. The schools visited were in their turn the Florida school at St. Augustine, the Alabama school at Talladega, the Georgia school at Cave Spring, the South Carolina school at Cedar Spring, the North Carolina school at Morganton, and the Virginia school at Staunton, six schools in all. The purpose of our visitation was to observe the school work doing in the several schools, but more especially to study the speech work in its extent and character and in the varied conditions under which it is being carried on. Our reception at each school visited was most cordial, and every opportunity was given and every facility extended that we should see and hear to the full of our every desire.

It is no part of our purpose to make here a detailed report of our observation and study; that is reserved to be made formally to the Directors of the Association for their information and use. But we may say, and it is proper to say, that the work of the several schools and classes as it passed under our review, impressed us, with rare exceptions, most favorably, as showing the presence and influence of high standards and the practice of modern and approved methods. This was true both of the oral and the manual work, for in the latter there exists, as we were pleased to note in several of the schools, a strong and aggressive sentiment for English as the sole language for communication and instruction in class work, a fact in itself suggestive of the high grade of work that in those schools came under our observation. The pleasing and encouraging feature of the oral work was of course the results accomplished, the actual demonstration of the

success of oral instruction presented in so many classes; but second only to this, as we count it, was the spirit that we observed among teachers everywhere which was one of strong faith in the work and of earnest devotion to it, even though in instances the faith and devotion were exercised in the midst of unfavorable and hampering conditions. Still another encouraging feature was the fact that we found the best oral work in the schools where it is oldest and where the oral classes have come to more nearly dominate the school work. This may be due to growing experience on the part of the teachers, but we believe it due more to the tendency of unfavorable conditions in a school with time to become favorable, to readjust themselves, as it were, and to come more into line with the demands of oral instruction, coming, finally, to the full cooperation of all teaching factors and forces in the school which is so essential to the securing of the largest success in the practice of the oral method.

Our notes have record of a number of other facts that may be briefly stated: the element method and the Northampton charts are in general use in primary oral classes; Miss Barry's five-slate system is used in every school visited in primary classes, both oral and manual, being the only device for its purpose used so far as was observed; the half-hour system is nowhere practiced, all oral teachers in the several schools having regular all day classes.

We were questioned at a number of points upon the prospect of a summer school of training for oral teachers, and one superintendent discussing the subject expressed himself in these words: "I tell you what we want in the United States more than anything else—for the work in our schools is not going to be satisfactory until we get it—and that is a great central normal training school. The finest work I have ever seen of training has been under the Bell system. Better at first to confine the operation of the school to the vacation period, but later the course should cover a year or longer. I am sure that there is a demand for it. I know it from my standpoint. The oral work requires technical training. It is now too diverse; it is running in too many directions. We in charge of the smaller schools feel it more than others."

Five of the six schools visited either are having additional buildings erected, or have them recently completed, a fact that speaks eloquently of the growing appreciation on the part of southern legislators of the value and importance of education for the deaf, as well as of the need of proper facilities for realization of the best possibilities of the work. F. W. B.

THE STATISTICS OF SPEECH TEACHING.

In this issue of the ASSOCIATION REVIEW we publish the annual statistics of speech teaching in American schools for the Deaf. The tables are so full and the graphic diagram shows so clearly the relation of the figures to one another, there remains little to say editorially in addition or explanation. After several years' experimenting, it has been possible to cast the queries in a form that concisely yet with precision describes all the important variations in methods of instruction followed in American schools. They appear to meet with general approval and for the first time there has been no suggestion of amendment. That they are less open to misunderstanding than the questions formerly asked is shown by the few instances in which the figures required revision. The change in some of the curves of the diagram is doubtless due, in a great measure, to a better comprehension of the queries, and therefore to a more exact presentation of the conditions existing in the different schools. S. G. D.

From the Austin, Texas, school paper we learn that a number of their teachers are going to Northampton immediately after school closes in June, for a five weeks' special course in oral work. They will have two weeks in which to observe the work of the Northampton school before its close. To our mind this action of the Texas teachers and of the Northampton school authorities offers suggestion of a very practical solution of the Summer School problem. If training, observation, and lectures can be given this summer to eight or ten teachers, coming from one school, may a similar course not be given another summer and following summers to classes of twenty teachers, or even more, coming from the various schools of the country? We believe if the Northampton school will but consent to it, and will undertake the work, such will be an ideal solution of the problem, and an acceptable one as well to the profession of the entire country.

F. W. B.

A BIT OF HISTORY.

The following taken from the Georgia School Helper, we reprint for the history that it contains:

"Mr. Frank W. Booth, editor of THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, paid us a pleasant visit last week. Mr. Booth's father, and Thomas S. Perkins, deaf-mutes, with Mr. Lewis Weld, principal of the American Asylum at Hartford, Conn., visited Georgia in 1834. They went before the governor and legislature and fully demonstrated to them the value and importance of a deaf school. The result of this exhibition was the passage of an act making the first appropriation by the state in aid of deaf-mute education. Pupils were sent to Hartford, Conn., until May, 1846, when they began to be taught in Georgia. Hence it may be said that to Mr. Booth's father is due the honor of being partly instrumental in the establishment of this school. Mr. Booth's visit was a pleasant one to all and we hope he will come again."

The elder Booth is still living, at the age of 94, in Anamosa, Iowa, where, though deaf, he for forty years edited the leading newspaper of the county. The party, besides going before the Georgia legislature, appeared before the South Carolina legislature, and for the same purpose, namely, to secure the passage of an act making provision for the education of the deaf children of the state at the school at Hartford, Conn., the only school for the deaf at that time in America.

OBITUARIES.

Marshall T. Gass, from 1883 to 1892 superintendent of the Michigan School for the Deaf at Flint, and since then in charge of the Iowa Soldiers' Orphan Home at Davenport, died May 6th last. During his connection with the profession Mr. Gass won the high regard of teachers of the Deaf, both by his abilities as a superintendent and his qualities as a man.

Mr. Eugene J. Bending, Director of Manual Training in the Delavan, Wisconsin, school passed away on April 25th. Mr. Bending was appointed to his position in 1896. He was unusually capable and successful in his line of work and was honored and loved by his associates and the pupils for the nobility of his character.

A. LINCOLN FECHHEIMER WINS A GOLD MEDAL.

Information reaches us that A. Lincoln Fechheimer, now taking a course in architecture at the Ecol de Beaux Arts, in Paris, has just received a gold medal in an esquisse-esquisse (a drawing made at the Beaux Arts within twelve hours). This medal awarded by the jury is, we understand, considered a great honor under any condition, but it means even more when awarded on an esquisse, for it counts two values, and with the others that he now has, Mr. Fechheimer is privileged to make his final Diplome drawings whenever he wishes. This he will soon do, thus completing his course.

In a note Mr. Lars M. Larson, of Santa Fe, speaks of the new building and the opening of the school in the fall as follows: Our new building, 45 x 90 feet, has been all about completed. The school is expected to open this fall. The Board used the school's appropriation in completing the building. This is the reason the school has not opened as it otherwise would. The building was erected not on the ordinary Institute plan, and looks more like a public school than anything else. It has no chapel, no study halls, no living rooms, and other rooms are wanting; it has only school-rooms in the first story and dormitories in the second; a kitchen and a dining room will be made in the basement. The school-rooms have no closets, and are too many for the few deaf children in the territory.

The dates of the several meetings of interest to friends of the deaf, to be held at St. Louis this summer, are as follows:

June 27 to July 1: Department of Special Education, N. E. A.

August 20 to 27: International Congress of the Deaf.

October 17 to 20: Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf. "Helen Keller Day," October 18.

On the fourth of May, Gallaudet College celebrated the fortieth anniversary of its founding. In addition to the usual granting of bachelor degrees to graduates, seven of the older graduates of the college were honored with the conferring upon them of the degrees of Doctor of Letters and Doctor of Science.

Information comes from Mr. J. N. Banerji, of the Calcutta, India, School for the Deaf, of the recent completion of a new main building for the school. Mr. Banerji's many American friends will unite with us in congratulation to him upon this evidence of the growth of his work and of its prosperous condition.

"THE LIFE OF JESUS."

This is the title of a beautiful little book, an advance copy of which has been sent us, written by Miss Margaret J. Stevenson, of Olathe, Kansas. The work covers in briefest narrative form the entire life of the Saviour, from his birth to his death and resurrection, with every incident related illustrated by a finely executed picture, a copy of a classic painting. The book contains 38 pages, is printed on fine paper, and is well bound. Written by an experienced teacher of deaf children, it is well calculated to find a permanent place in our schools for the deaf. Information regarding its sale may be obtained from the author.

The following schools, according to advices received from Mr. Alvin E. Pope, will participate in the "living exhibit" at the St. Louis Exposition: the Fulton, Mo., school; the Omaha, Neb., school; the Olathe, Kan., school; and the Jacksonville, Ill., school. The Missouri school classes will be present during June; the Illinois school classes during October.

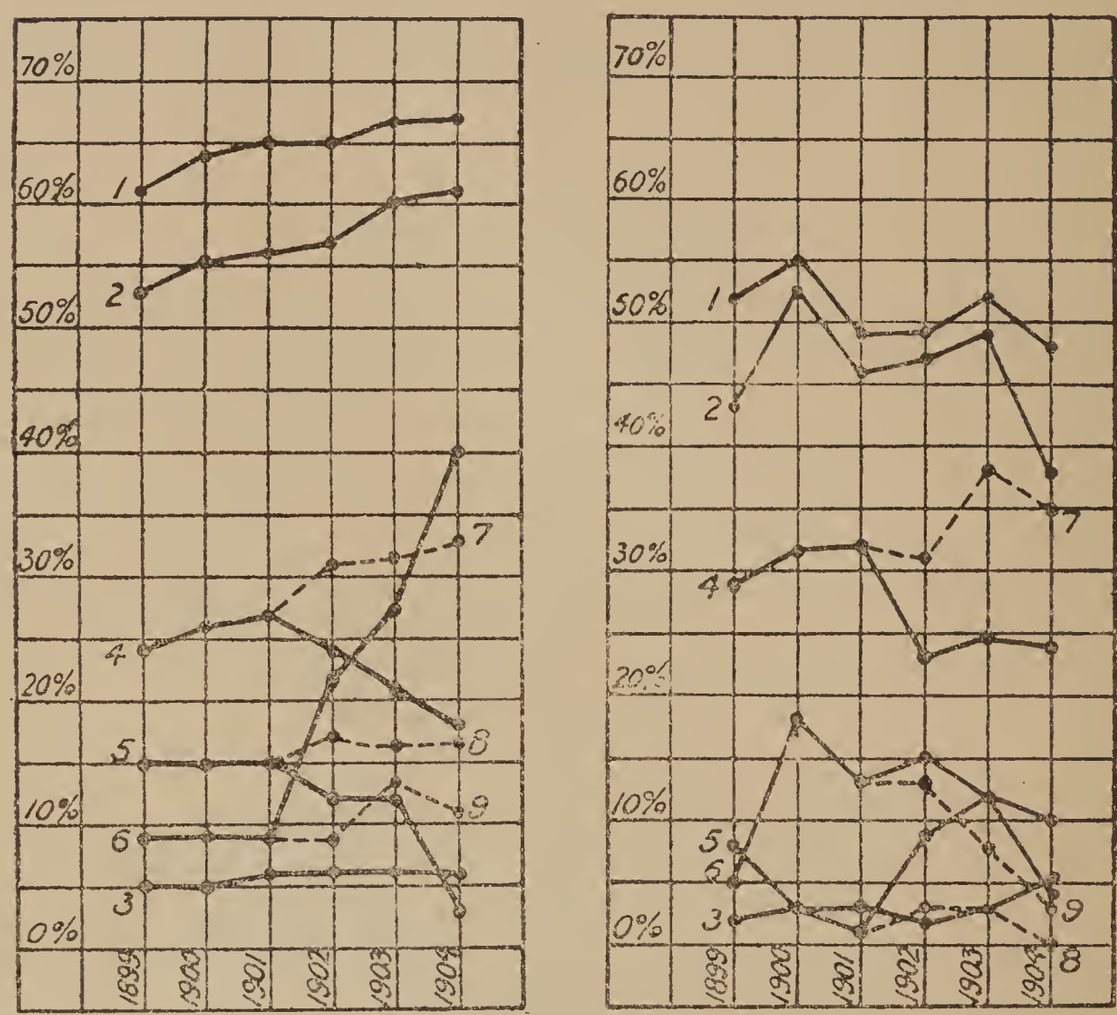
A limited number of bound volumes of the REVIEW is offered to Institutions at the following rates: For Vol. I, bound in cloth, $1.00: for Vols. II, III, IV, and V, bound in cloth, $2.00 each. For prices of other publications of the Association see advertisement in this number. In order that these latter publications may be placed in the hands of all members of the Association who may not have them, the prices have been reduced to amounts covering little more than postage, and entire sets are offered at $2.00 per set.

Reprints in pamphlet form of the papers on "Formation and Development of Elementary English Sounds," by Caroline A. Yale, may be obtained by addressing the office of the General Secretary. Price for single copies, 25 cents.

REPORT ON THE PROGRESS OF SPEECH-TEACHING IN AMERICA.

Speech-teaching in American Schools for the Deaf, 1899--1904.

UNITED STATES. CANADA.



KEY TO SPEECH DIAGRAMS.

The diagrams represent graphically the percentage of pupils taught speech in schools for the deaf in the United States and Canada, according to the statistics which have been gathered annually by the REVIEW since 1899.

The figures on which the above diagrams are based are given on the opposite page, and the columns are numbered to correspond to the curves upon the diagrams.

1. Total taught Speech. *(Summation of all cases).*
2. Speech *used* as a means of instruction *(with or without spelling or sign-language).*
3. Taught Speech, but Speech *not used* as means of instruction.

MEANS OF INSTRUCTION IN SCHOOL AND OUTSIDE.

4. Taught by Speech *(no spelling, no sign-language).*
5. Taught by Speech and Spelling *(no sign-language).*
6. Taught by Speech, Spelling, and Sign-Language.

SCHOOL ROOM USAGE.

(Without reference to outside instruction).

7. Taught by Speech *(no spelling, no sign-language).*
8. Taught by Speech and Spelling *(no sign-language).*
9. Taught by Speech, Spelling, and Sign-Language.

SPEECH-TEACHING IN THE UNITED STATES—1899 to 1904.

Number of Pupils.

Year	Taught Speech	Speech Used	Not Used	Taught by Speech			School-room Usage		
				S	SS	SSS	S	SS	SSS
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1899....	6460	5584	535	2496	1549	972			
1900....	6884	5969	582	2757	1643	995			
1901....	7131	6167	621	3020	1611	1069			
1902....	7164	6276	712	2506	1323	2412	3400	1903	938
1903....	7561	6793	645	2331	1364	3098	3552	1754	1487
1904....	7578	6858	720	2050	305	4503	3715	1854	1289

Percentage of Pupils.

1899....	61.4%	53.1%	5.1%	23.7%	14.7%	9.2%			
1900....	64.0%	55.5%	5.4%	25.7%	15.3%	9.2%			
1901....	64.7%	56.0%	5.6%	27.4%	14.6%	9.2%			
1902....	64.7%	56.7%	6.4%	22.6%	12.0%	21.8%	30.6%	17.2%	8.5%
1903....	67.2%	60.3%	5.8%	20.7%	12.1%	27.5%	31.5%	15.6%	13.2%
1904....	67.3%	60.9%	6.4%	18.2%	2.7%	40.0%	33.0%	16.5%	11.4%

SPEECH-TEACHING IN CANADA—1899 to 1904.

Year	Taught Speech	Speech Used	Not Used	Taught by Speech			School-room Usage		
				S	SS	SSS	S	SS	SSS
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1899....	404	330	14	225	64	41			
1900....	434	411	23	247	20	144			
1901....	384	361	23	251	8	102			
1902....	393	377	16	180	75	122	250	20	107
1903....	387	367	20	183	93	91	283	21	63
1904....	354	282	72	179	75	28	259	—	23

Percentage of Pupils.

Number of Pupils.

1899..	52.1%	42.6%	1.8%	29.0%	8.3%	5.3%			
1900....	55.4%	52.5%	2.9%	31.5%	2.6%	18.4%			
1901....	48.8%	45.9%	2.9%	31.9%	1.0%	13.0%			
1902....	49.2%	47.2%	2.0%	22.6%	9.4%	15.3%	31.4%	2.6%	13.4%
1903....	51.8%	49.1%	2.7%	24.5%	12.4%	12.2%	37.8%	2.8%	8.4%
1904....	48.2%	38.4%	9.8%	24.4%	10.2%	3.8%	35.3%	—	3.1%

* Notes:—For corrected Table for 1900, See Vol. II, p. 449.

Column 3, "not used" includes all cases where it is not known that speech is used as a means of instruction.

Columns 5 and 8 include unclassified cases taught by SS.

Colums 6 and 9 include unclassified cases taught by SSS.

TABLE I.—SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.

(Arranged alphabetically according to location.)

Territory. State or	Town.	Street or District.	Official Name of School.	Chief Executive Officer.
Alabama	Talladega		Alabama Institute for the Deaf	Joseph H. Johnson, M.A.
Arkansas	Little Rock		Arkansas Deaf-Mute Institute	Frank B. Yates.
California	Berkeley		California Institution for the Deaf and the Blind	W. Wilkinson, M.A., L.H.D.
do	Los Angeles		Los Angeles Oral School for the Deaf	Mary E. Bennett.
do	Oakland	Eleventh and Jefferson Sts.,	Oakland Oral Day School for the Deaf	Charlotte Louise Morgan.
do	do	Telegraph Ave., No. 4002.,	St. Joseph's School and Home for Deaf-Mutes	Sister M. Valeria.
do	Sacramento	Marshall School	Sacramento Oral School for the Deaf	H. Ray Kribs.
do	San Francisco	Grove St., near Larkin	San Francisco Day School for the Deaf	Mrs. Jennie B. Holden.
Colorado	Col. Springs		Colorado School for the Deaf and the Blind	W. K. Argo, M.A.
Connecticut	Hartford		American School for the Deaf	Job Williams, M.A., L.H.D.
do	Mystic		Mystic Oral School for the Deaf	Alice H. Damon, B.A.
Dist. Columbia	Washington	Kendall Green	Columbia Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph.D., LL.D.
			Comprising { The Kendall School for the Deaf	James Denison, M.A.
			and Gallaudet College	E. M. Gallaudet, Ph.D., LL.D.
Florida	St. Augustine		Florida Institute for the Deaf and the Blind	Wm. B. Hare.
Georgia	Cave Spring		Georgia School for the Deaf	Wesley O. Connor.
Illinois	Aurora	Center School	Aurora Day-School for the Deaf	Maggie Neel Proctor.
do	Chicago	Ashland and Wabansia St.	Burr Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Ashland and West 13th St.	Clarke Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Edgewood Av. & Catalpa Ct.	Darwin Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Gross Ave., No 4630	Seward Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Harrison, near Halstead St.	Dore Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Ingleside Ave. and 54th St.	Kozminski Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Morgan St. and 33d Place	P. D. Armour Public DaySchool for the Deaf	
do	do	Sedgewick and Division Sts.	Lyman Trumbull Pub. Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Seventieth St. and Yale Ave.	Yale Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Twenty-first Pl. n'r Cal. Av.	Hammond Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	Twenty-first St. and Robie	Froebel Public Day-School for the Deaf	
do	do	The above	11 Public Day-Schools	Mary T. McCowen.
do	do	South May Street, No. 409	Ephpheta School for the Deaf	Margaret Cosgrove.
do	do	Yale Avenue, No. 6550	McCowen Oral School for Young Deaf Children	Cornelia D. Bingham.
do	Dundee		Dundee Day-School for the Deaf	Elizabeth Stephenson.
do	Jacksonville		Illinois Inst. for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Charles P. Gillett.

Illinois	Rockford		Rockford Day-School for the Deaf	Sarah M. Kinnaird.
do	Rock Island	Fifth Ave., No. 1122	Rock Island Day-School for the Deaf	Meta C. Wittig.
do	Streator		Streator Day-School for the Deaf	Helen Owen.
Indiana	Indianapolis		Indiana Inst. for Education of Deaf and Dumb	Richard Otto Johnson.
Iowa	Council Bluffs		Iowa School for the Deaf	Henry W. Rothert.
Kansas	Olathe		Kansas School for the Deaf	H. C. Hammond.
Kentucky	Danville		Kentucky Inst. for Education of Deaf-Mutes	Augustus Rogers, M.A.
Louisiana	Baton Rouge		Louisiana Inst. for Ed. of Deaf and Dumb	John Jastremski, M.D.
do	Chinchuba		Charitable Deaf-Mute Inst. of the Holy Rosary	Fr. Gabriel.
Maine	Portland	Spring Street, Nos. 79 to 85.	Maine School for the Deaf	Elizabeth R. Taylor.
Maryland	Baltimore	Hollins St., Nos. 851 to 853.	F. Knapp's Institute	Wm. A. Knapp.
do	...do	McCulloh St., No. 903	St. Francis Xaviers's School for the Deaf	Mother M. Joseph Hartwell
do	...do	West Saratoga Street, No. 649	Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf	Frederick D. Morrison, M.A.
do	Frederick City		Maryland School for the Deaf and Dumb	Charles W. Ely, M.A.
Massachusetts	Beverly	113 Elliott Street	New England Industrial School for Deaf-mutes	
do	Boston	Jamaica Plain	Boston School for the Deaf	Rev. Thomas Magennis.
do	...do	Newbury Street, No. 178	Horace Mann School for the Deaf	Sarah Fuller.
do	Northampton		Clarke School for the Deaf	Caroline A. Yale, LL.D.
do	West Medford	Woburn Street, No. 93	Sarah Fuller Home for Little Children Who Cannot Hear	Eliza L. Clark.
Michigan	Bay City		Bay City Day-School for the Deaf	Martha Hill.
do	Calumet		Calumet Day-School for the Deaf	Gertrude Van Adestine.
do	Detroit	Porter St. and Michigan Ave.	Detroit Day-School for the Deaf	Elizabeth Van Adestine.
do	Flint		Michigan School for the Deaf	Francis D. Clarke, M.A., C.E.
do	Grand Rapids		Grand Rapids Day-School for the Deaf	Margaret M. Sullivan.
do	Jackson		Jackson Day-School for the Deaf	Gertrude A. Coleman.
do	Kalamazoo		Kalamazoo Day-School for the Deaf	Alice Jenkins.
do	Menominee		Menominee Day-School for the Deaf	Olive Newlin.
do	Muskegon		Muskegon Day-School for the Deaf	Jessie Banford.
do	North Detroit		Evangelical Lutheran Institution for the Deaf	Rev. William Gielow.
do	Saginaw		Saginaw Day-School for the Deaf	Frances Dewar.
Minnesota	Faribault		Minnesota School for the Deaf	James N. Tate, M.A., LL.D.
Mississippi	Jackson		Mississippi Inst. for Ed. of Deaf and Dumb	J. R. Dobyns, M.A., LL.D.
Missouri	Fulton		Missouri School for the Deaf and Dumb	Noble B. McKee, M.A.
do	St. Louis	Cass Avenue, No. 1840	Mariae Consilia School for the Deaf	Sister M. Adele.
do	...do	Henrietta St., No. 3435	Gallaudet School for the Deaf	James H. Cloud, M.A.
do	S. St. Louis	Longwood Place	St. Joseph's Deaf-Mute Institute for Boys	Rev. Mother Agatha.

TABLE I—CONTINUED—SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.

State or Territory.	Town.	Street or District.	Official Name of School.	Chief Executive Officer.
Montana	Boulder		Montana School for Deaf and Blind	Thos. S. McAloney.
Nebraska	Omaha		Nebraska Institute for the Deaf and Dumb	R. E. Stewart.
New Jersey	Trenton		New Jersey School for Deaf-Mutes	J. P. Walker, M.A.
New York	Albany	Pine Hills	Albany Home Sch. for Oral Instr. of the Deaf	Mary McGuire.
do	Brooklyn	113 Buffalo Ave	Branch of St. Joseph's Inst. for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes	Mary C. Hendrick.
do	Buffalo	Edward Street, No. 125	Le Couteulx St. Mary's Inst. for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes	Sister Mary Anne Burke.
do	Fordham	East 188th Street, No. 772	Branch of St. Joseph's Inst. for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes	N. Francis O'Connor.
do	Malone		Northern New York Institution for Deaf-Mutes	Edward C. Rider.
do	New York	904 Lexington Avenue	New York Inst. for Imp'd Inst'n of Deaf-Mutes	E. A. Gruver, B.A.
do	...do	Washington Heights	New York Inst. for Instr. of Deaf and Dumb	Enoch Henry Currier, M.A.
do	...do	534 W. 187th Street	Reno Margulies School for Children with Defective Hearing.	Mrs. A. Reno Margulies.
do	...do	847 St. Nicholas Ave	Washington Heights School for Children with Defective Hearing	Mrs. J. Scott Anderson.
do	do	1 Mt. Morris Park W	Wright Oral School	J. D. Wright, M.A.
do	Rochester	North St. Paul St., No. 945	Western New York Inst. for Deaf-Mutes	Z. F. Westervelt, LL.D.
do	Rome		Central New York Inst. for Deaf-Mutes	Edward Beverly Nelson, M.A.
do	Westchester		Branch of St. Joseph's Inst. for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes	Ellen E. Cloak.
North Carolina	Morganton		North Carolina School for the Deaf and Dumb	E. McKay Goodwin, M.A.
do	Raleigh		N. C. Inst. for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind	John E. Ray, M.A.
North Dakota	Devils Lake		Deaf and Dumb Asylum (of North Dakota)	Dwight F. Bangs.
Ohio	Ashtabula	Division Street School	Ashtabula Day-School for the Deaf	Mrs. Rosa Keeler.
do	Canton		The Canton Oral Day-School for the Deaf and Defective in Hearing	Katharine Mae Binkley.
do	Cincinnati	719 W. Sixth Street	Cincinnati Oral School for the Deaf	Virginia A. Osborn.
do	...do	719 W. Sixth Street	Cincinnati Public School for the Deaf	Caroline Fesenbeck.
do	...do	East Sixth Street	Notre Dame School for the Deaf	Sister Mary of the Sacred Heart.
do	Cleveland	1304 Willson Ave	Cleveland Day-School for the Deaf	Katharine E. Barry.
do	Columbus		Ohio Inst. for the Education of Deaf and Dumb	J. W. Jones, M.A.
do	...do	825 S. Wilson Ave	Private Day-School for Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age	F. L. Willhoyte.

Ohio	Dayton	1st and St. Clair Streets	Dayton School for the Deaf	Nannie C. Kennedy.
do	Elyria		Elyria School for the Deaf	Harrietta A. Maxted.
Oklahoma	Guthrie		Oklahoma Institute for the Deaf and Dumb	H. C. Beamer.
Oregon	Salem		Oregon School for Deaf-Mutes	Thomas P. Clarke.
Pennsylvania	Edgewood P'k		West. Penna. Inst. for the Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb	William N. Burt, M.A., Ph.D.
do	Philadelphia	Belmont and Monument Aves	Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age	Mary S. Garrett.
do	do	Mount Airy	Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	A. L. E. Crouter, M.A., LL.D.
do	Scranton		Pennsylvania Oral School for the Deaf	Mary B. C. Brown.
Rhode Island	Providence	520 Hope St.	Rhode Island Institute for the Deaf	Laura De L. Richards.
South Carolina	Cedar Spring		S. Carolina Inst. for the Education of the Deaf and the Blind	Newton F. Walker.
South Dakota	Sioux Falls		South Dakota School for Deaf-Mutes	Dora Donald.
Tennessee	Knoxville		Tennessee Deaf and Dumb School	Thomas L. Moses.
Texas	Austin		Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Inst. for Colored Youth	
do	do		Texas Deaf and Dumb Asylum	B. F. McNulty.
Utah	Ogden		Utah State School for the Deaf and Dumb	Frank M. Driggs.
Virginia	Staunton		Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind	William A Bowles.
Washington	Vancouver		Washington School for Defective Youth	James Watson.
West Virginia	Romney		West Virginia Schools for Deaf and Blind	James T. Rucker.
Wisconsin	Appleton		Appleton School for the Deaf	Hannah J. Gardner.
do	Ashland		Ashland Day-School for the Deaf	Alice V. Robie.
do	Black R's F'lls		Black River Falls School for the Deaf	Blanche E. Argyle.
do	Delavan		Wisconsin School for the Deaf	E. W. Walker.
do	Eau Claire		Eau Claire Day-School for the Deaf	Jennie C. Smith.
do	Fond du Lac		Fond du Lac Day-School for the Deaf	Anna Sullivan.
do	Green Bay		Green Bay Day-School for the Deaf	M. Stella Flatley.
do	La Crosse		La Crosse Day-School for the Deaf	Hulda Rudolph.
do	Marinette	Main Street, No. 1532	Marinette School for the Deaf	Jessie M. Daniells.
do	Milwaukee	Seventh and Prairie Streets	Milwaukee Public Day-School for the Deaf	Frances Wettstein.
do	Neillsville		Neillsville Day-School for the Deaf	Elizabeth H. Irish, B.A.
do	Oshkosh		Oshkosh School for the Deaf	Carrie H. Archibald.
do	Racine		Racine Day-School for the Deaf	Katharine Keating.
do	Rhinelander		Rhinelander Day-School for the Deaf	Ethel Merchant.
do	St. Francis		St. John's Catholic Deaf-Mute Institute	Rev. M. M. Gerend.
do	Sheboygan		Sheboygan Day-School for the Deaf	Margaret P. Maywood.

TABLE I.—CONTINUED.—SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.

State or Province.	Town.	Street or District.	Official Name of School.	Chief Executive Officer.
Wisconsin	Sparta		Sparta Day-School for the Deaf	Charlotte Shermer.
do	Wausau		Wausau Day-School for the Deaf	Margaret Hurley.
do	West Superior		Superior Day-School for the Deaf	Delia C. Page.

CANADIAN SCHOOLS.

Manitoba	Winnipeg		Manitoba Deaf and Dumb Institution	D. W. McDermid.
New Brunsw'k	St. Johns		New Brunswick School for the Deaf	
Nova Scotia	Halifax		Halifax Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	James Fearon.
Ontario	Belleville		Ontario Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Robert Mathison, M.A.
Quebec	Montreal	Berri Street, No. 546	Catholic Female Deaf and Dumb Institution	Rev. Sister Philip of Jesus.
do	...do	Mile End	Catholic Male Deaf-Mute Inst. for the Province of Quebec	Rev. M. Cadieux, C. S. V.
do	...do	Notre Dame de Grace Street.	Mackay Inst. for Prot. Deaf-Mutes and Blind	Mrs. H. E. Ashcroft.

1904.

Schools fo	of Instruction		
i	SS in Schoolr'm SSS outside Query 5	SSS in Schoolr'm SSS outside Query 6	Unclassified
THE UNIT			
arranged alphabeti			
loca			
Ala. Talladega Sch	48	—	—
Ark. Little Rock Sc	—	—	—
Cal. Berkeley Scho	—	—	9
" Los Angeles S	—	—	—
" Oakland, 17th	—	—	—
" " Teleg	—	—	—
" Dayton Schoo	—	—	—
" Elyria School	—	—	—
kla. Guthrie Schoo	—	—	22
re. Salem School	—	—	—
enn Edgewood Pa	—	—	—
" Phila., Belmo	—	—	—
" " Mt. Ai	—	—	—
" Scranton Scho	—	—	—
R. I. Providence Sc	8	—	—
S. C. Cedar Spring	—	1	—
S. D. Sioux Falls S	—	—	—
Tenn. Knoxville Sch			
Tex. Austin Schoo			
"			
Utah			
Va.			
Wa			
W.			
Wi			
"			
"			

TABLE I.—Continued.—SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF IN THE UNITED STATES.

State or Province.	Town.	Street or District.	Official Name of School.	Chief Executive Officer.
Wisconsin	Sparta		Sparta Day-School for the Deaf	Charlotte Shermer.
do	Wausau		Wausau Day-School for the Deaf	Margaret Hurley.
do	West Superior		Superior Day-School for the Deaf	Delia C. Page.

CANADIAN SCHOOLS.

Manitoba	Winnipeg		Manitoba Deaf and Dumb Institution	D. W. McDermid.
New Brunsw'k	St. Johns		New Brunswick School for the Deaf	
Nova Scotia	Halifax		Halifax Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	James Fearon.
Ontario	Belleville		Ontario Institution for the Deaf and Dumb	Robert Mathison, M.A.
Quebec	Montreal	Berri Street, No. 546	Catholic Female Deaf and Dumb Institution	Rev. Sister Philip of Jesus.
do	...do	Mile End	Catholic Male Deaf-Mute Inst. for the Province of Quebec	Rev. M. Cadieux, C. S. V.
do	...do	Notre Dame de Grace Street.	Mackay Inst. for Prot. Deaf-Mutes and Blind	Mrs. H. E. Ashcroft.

TABLE II.—SPEECH-TEACHING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF, MARCH 31, 1904.

Schools for the Deaf in THE UNITED STATES arranged alphabetically according to location	Number of Pupils			Taught Speech			Speech Used as a Means of Instruction						
	Total Query 9	Taught Speech	Not taught speech Query 8	Speech Used as a means of instruction	Speech Not Used as a means of instr'ction Query 7	Not stated whether used or not	S in Schoolr'm S outside Query 1	S in Schoolr'm SS outside Query 2	S in Schoolr'm SSS outside Query 3	SS in Schoolr'm SS outside Query 4	SS in Schoolr'm SSS outside Query 5	SSS in Schoolr'm SSS outside Query 6	Unclassified
Ala. Talladega School (1)	172	84	88	84	—	—	—	—	36	—	48	—	—
Ark. Little Rock School (2)	214	47	167	31	16	—	—	—	31	—	—	—	—
Cal. Berkeley School*	137	107	30	9	—	98	—	—	—	—	—	—	9
" Los Angeles School	16	16	—	16	—	—	16	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Oakland, 17th and West School	11	11	—	11	—	—	11	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Telegraph Ave. School	38	38	—	30	8	—	—	—	—	6	—	24	—
" Sacramento School	5	5	—	5	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—
" San Francisco School	29	29	—	29	—	—	29	—	—	—	—	—	—
Col. Colorado Springs School (3)	103	76	27	76	—	—	—	—	—	—	76	—	—
Conn. Hartford School*	165	131	34	61	—	70	—	—	—	—	—	—	61
" Mystic School	25	25	—	25	—	—	25	—	—	—	—	—	—
D. C. Washington, Gallaudet College*	98	55	43	—	—	55	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Kendall School*	60	46	14	2	—	44	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Fla. St. Augustine School	55	41	14	29	12	—	—	—	29	—	—	—	—
Ga. Cave Spring School (4)	164	70	94	70	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	70	—
Ill. Aurora School	5	5	—	5	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Chicago, Ashland & Wabansia St.	13	13	—	13	—	—	13	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Ashland & W. 13th St	8	8	—	8	—	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Edgewood Ave. School	20	20	—	20	—	—	20	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Gross Ave. School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Harrison St. School	11	10	1	10	—	—	10	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Ingleside Ave. School	13	13	—	13	—	—	13	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Morgan St. School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Sedgewick St. School	20	20	—	20	—	—	20	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Seventieth St. School	43	43	—	43	—	—	43	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Twenty-first Pl. & Cala. Av.	10	10	—	10	—	—	10	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Twenty-first & Robey Sts.	7	7	—	7	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " 11 Public Day Schools	157	156	1	156	—	—	156	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " South May St. School (5)	54	54	—	54	—	—	—	—	—	—	54	—	—
" " Yale Ave. School	42	42	—	42	—	—	42	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Dundee School	6	6	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	—
" Jacksonville School (6)	468	399	69	369	30	—	—	—	—	—	369	—	—
" Rockford School	5	5	—	5	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Rock Island School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Streator School	4	4	—	4	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ind. Indianapolis School	317	159	158	159	—	—	—	—	146	—	13	—	—
Iowa. Council Bluffs School	246	123	123	123	—	—	—	—	117	—	—	6	—
Kan. Olathe School (7)	220	83	137	68	15	—	—	—	—	—	68	—	—
Ky. Danville School	350	142	208	142	—	—	—	—	90	—	52	—	—
La. Baton Rouge School*	118	54	64	—	—	54	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Chinchuba School	33	—	33	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Me. Portland School	93	85	8	85	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	85	—
Md. Baltimore, Hollins St. School	27	27	—	27	—	—	27	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " McCulloh St. Sch.*	24	24	—	—	—	24	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " W. Saratoga St. School	43	43	—	15	28	—	—	—	—	15	—	—	—
" Frederick City School	103	66	37	66	—	—	—	—	55	—	—	11	—
Mass. Beverly School	25	20	5	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—
" Boston, Jamaica Plain School	48	48	—	48	—	—	48	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Newbury Street School	133	133	—	133	—	—	133	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Northampton School	143	143	—	143	—	—	143	—	—	—	—	—	—
" W. Medford School	11	11	—	11	—	—	11	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mich. Bay City School	7	7	—	7	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Calumet School	9	9	—	9	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Detroit School	43	43	—	43	—	—	43	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Flint School*	384	265	119	197	—	68	—	—	—	—	—	—	197
" Grand Rapids School	23	23	—	23	—	—	23	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Jackson School	8	8	—	8	—	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Kalamazoo School	7	7	—	7	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Menominee School	4	4	—	4	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Muskegon School	7	7	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	7	—	—	—
" North Detroit School	34	33	1	32	1	—	—	—	6	—	—	26	—
" Saginaw School	7	7	—	7	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
Minn. Faribault School* (8)	278	88	190	88	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	88	—
Miss. Jackson School*	143	50	93	36	—	14	—	—	—	—	—	—	36
Mo. Fulton School	331	86	245	86	—	—	—	—	86	—	—	—	—
" St. Louis, Cass Ave. School	35	25	10	20	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—
" " Henrietta St. School	41	40	1	40	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	40	—
" " So. St. Louis School	20	20	—	16	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	16	—
Mont. Boulder School	39	31	8	31	—	—	—	—	12	—	—	19	—
Neb. Omaha School	178	115	63	115	—	—	—	—	28	—	71	16	—
N. J. Trenton School (9)	150	150	—	150	—	—	—	—	60	—	—	90	—
N. Y. Albany School†	34	34	—	34	—	—	34	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Brooklyn School†	75	75	—	75	—	—	—	—	75	—	—	—	—
" Buffalo School	160	135	25	55	80	—	4	10	10	11	20	—	—
" Fordham School	116	116	—	116	—	—	—	—	—	—	116	—	—
" Malone School	79	68	11	68	—	—	9	—	—	59	—	—	—
" N. Y. Lexington Ave. School	212	212	—	212	—	—	212	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Mt. Morris Park School	18	18	—	18	—	—	18	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " St. Nicholas Ave. School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Wash't'n H'ts. (N.Y. Inst)	10	440	440	440	—	—	—	—	—	—	440	—	—
" " West 187th St. School	7	7	—	7	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Rochester School (11)	178	178	—	178	—	—	—	—	—	178	—	—	—
" Rome School	129	129	—	129	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	129	—
" Westchester School	201	201	—	201	—	—	—	—	—	—	201	—	—
N. C. Morganton School	243	118	125	118	—	—	—	—	118	—	—	—	—
" Raleigh School	88	20	68	20	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—
N. D. Devil's Lake School	64	38	26	31	7	—	1	—	5	—	—	25	—
Ohio. Ashtabula School (12)	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Canton School	7	7	—	7	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Cin'nati, W. 6th St. (Oral) School	25	25	—	25	—	—	25	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " " (Manual) Sch.	5	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " East Sixth St. Sch.	18	17	1	17	—	—	4	—	—	13	—	—	—
" Cleveland School (13)	43	43	—	43	—	—	43	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Columbus School (Ohio Inst.) (14)	510	270	240	270	—	—	—	—	270	—	—	—	—
" " Wilson Ave. School	2	2	—	2	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Dayton School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Elyria School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
Okla. Guthrie School	73	—	73	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ore. Salem School* (15)	55	28	27	22	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	22
Penn Edgewood Park School	225	162	63	162	—	—	—	—	162	—	—	—	—
" Phila., Belmont Ave. School	63	63	—	63	—	—	63	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " Mt. Airy School	501	470	31	470	—	—	470	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Scranton School	84	84	—	84	—	—	84	—	—	—	—	—	—
R. I. Providence School	63	63	—	63	—	—	63	—	—	—	—	—	—
S. C. Cedar Spring School (16)	73	40	33	40	—	—	—	—	32	—	8	—	—
S. D. Sioux Falls School (17)	49	1	48	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Tenn. Knoxville School (18)	244	85	159	45	40	—	—	—	45	—	—	—	—
Tex. Austin School (for colored)	43	—	43	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Austin School (for whites) (19)	429	236	193	236	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	236	—
Utah. Ogden School (20)	72	40	32	35	5	—	—	—	12	—	23	—	—
Va. Staunton School	165	64	101	54	10	—	—	—	34	—	—	20	—
Wash. Vancouver School	93	26	67	—	26	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
W. V. Romney School	158	20	138	20	—	—	—	—	20	—	—	—	—
Wis. Appleton School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Ashland School	12	12	—	12	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Black River Falls School	9	9	—	9	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Delavan School	201	131	70	131	—	—	—	—	131	—	—	—	—
" Eau Claire School	19	19	—	19	—	—	19	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Fond du Lac School	9	9	—	9	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Green Bay School	7	7	—	7	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
" La Crosse School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Marinette School*	9	9	—	9	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Milwaukee School	60	60	—	60	—	—	60	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Neillsville School	11	11	—	11	—	—	11	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Oshkosh School*	7	7	—	7	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Racine School	11	11	—	11	—	—	11	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Rhinelander School	5	5	—	5	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—
" St. Francis School (21)	63	45	18	45	—	—	—	—	45	—	—	—	—
" Sheboygan School	9	9	—	9	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Sparta School	6	6	—	6	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Wausau School	8	8	—	8	—	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	—
" West Superior School	12	12	—	12	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—
Number of pupils in 131 schools	11259	7578	3681	6858	287	433	2050	10	1655	295	1559	962	327
Percentage " " "	100.0	67.3	32.7	60.9	2.6	3.8	18.2	0.1	14.7	2.6	13.9	8.5	2.9
CANADA													
Man. Winnipeg School	72	9	63	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
N. S. Halifax School (22)	101	75	26	75	—	—	—	75	—	—	—	—	—
Ont. Belleville School	238	53	185	—	53	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
P. Q. Montreal:						—							
" " Berri St. School	146	105	41	105	—	—	100	—	—	—	—	5	—
" " Mile End School	119	62	57	62	—	—	62	—	—	—	—	—	—
" " N'tre D'me de Grace School	59	50	9	40	10	—	17	—	5	—	—	18	—
Number of pupils in 6 schools	735	354	381	282	72	—	179	75	5	—	—	23	—
Percentage " " "	100.0	48.2	51.8	38.4	9.8		24.4	10.2	0.7			3.1	

*Compiled from Statistics given in American Annals of the Deaf, of January, 1904.

†Statistics from the Association Review of June, 1903.

For general summary of the above, see Tables III and IV. (1) to (22), see Notes, pp. 277–279.

TABLE III.—SPEECH-TEACHING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.—MARCH 31, 1904.

General Summary	United States		Canada	
	No. of Pupils	Per cent	No. of Pupils	Per cent
TOTAL PUPILS,	11259	100.0	735	100.0
Taught Speech,	7578	67.3	354	48.2
Not taught Speech,	3681	32.7	381	51.8
TAUGHT SPEECH:				
Speech used as means of instruction	6858	60.9	282	38.4
" not used " " " "	287	2.6	72	9.8
not stated (whether used or not)	433	3.8	—	—
SPEECH USED AS MEANS OF INSTRUCTION:				
S in schoolroom, S outside,	2050	18.2	179	24.4
S " " SS "	10	0.1	75	10.2
S " " SSS "	1655	14.7	5	0.7
SS " " SS "	295	2.6	—	—
SS " " SSS "	1559	13.9	—	—
SSS " " SSS "	962	8.5	23	3.1
Unclassified cases (in sign-schools)	327	2.9	—	—

Symbols employed in above Table:

S Speech (*no spelling, no sign-language.*)
SS Speech and Spelling (*no sign-language.*)
SSS Speech, Spelling, and Sign-language.

TABLE IV.—SPEECH-TEACHING IN AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.—MARCH 31, 1904.

	U. S.		Canada	
	No. of Pupils	Per cent.	No. of Pupils	Per cent.
TAUGHT WHOLLY BY THE ORAL METHOD:				
S in schoolroom, S outside.				
Total SPEECH, without spelling or sign-language.....	2050	18.2	179	24.4
TAUGHT IN PART BY ORAL METHODS:				
S in schoolroom, SS outside, SS " " SS "				
Total SPEECH and SPELLING, without sign-language.....	305	2.7	75	10.2
S in schoolroom, SSS outside, SS " " SSS " SSS " " SSS " Unclassified cases (in sign-schools.)				
Total SPEECH, SPELLING, and SIGN-LANGUAGE	4503	40.0	28	3.8
SCHOOLROOM USAGE:				
S in schoolroom, S outside, S " " SS " S " " SSS "				
Total S in schoolroom, ...	3715	33.0	259	35.3
SS in schoolroom, SS outside, SS " " SSS "				
Total SS in schoolroom, ...	1854	16.5	—	—
SSS in schoolroom SSS outside, Unclassified cases (in sign-schools.)				
Total SSS in schoolroom, ...	1289	11.4	23	3.1

The above statistics (Tables II, III, and IV) have been compiled from replies to the following queries:

Query 1. *Speech* (without spelling or sign-language) used both in the school-room and outside, with.....pupils.

Query 2. *Speech* (without spelling or sign-language) used in the school-room; but *Spelling* (without sign-language) also used outside in chapel exercises, workshop instruction, etc., with.....pupils.

Query 3. *Speech* (without spelling or sign-language) used in the school-room; but *Spelling* and *Sign-language* also used outside in chapel exercises, workshop instruction, etc., with.....pupils.

Query 4. *Speech* and *Spelling* (without sign-language) used both in the school-room and outside, with.....pupils.

Query 5. *Speech* and *Spelling* (without sign-language) used in the school-room; but *Sign-language* also used outside in chapel exercises, workshop instruction, etc., with .....pupils.

Query 6. *Speech, Spelling,* and *Sign-language* used both in the school-room and outside, with.....pupils.

Query 7. Number taught *Articulation* without speech being used as a means of instruction (their general education being carried on by silent methods),.....pupils.

Query 8. Number taught by silent methods alone, without being taught articulation or speech,.....pupils.

Query 9. Number of pupils in this school March 31, 1904: Total, ...pupils.

NOTES.

(1) Talladega School (Ala.): The statistics of this school were compiled, at Mr. Johnson's request, by Mr. F. W. Booth, from personal observation, while on a visit there.

(2) Little Rock School (Ark.): The figures given in reply to the queries are as follows: 1, 0; 2, 47; 3, 47; 4, 0; 5, 9; 6, 0; 7, 16; 8, 167; 9, 214. As 167 are not taught speech or articulation and 16 are taught articulation without speech being used as a means of instruction there can be only 31 taught by other methods, and these we have placed under 3

(3) Colorado Springs School (Col.): Of the 27 pupils taught by silent methods alone, 3 are Blind-Deaf.

(4) Cave Spring School (Ga.): Of the 164 pupils in the school 136 are whites and 28 negroes.

(5) South May St. School (Chicago, Ill.): Miss Margaret Cosgrove, the Superintendent, writes: This school uses the combined method. Speech, oral and written language used in all the classes Finger spelling is allowed during class hours. The sign language is used freely out of class.

(6) Jacksonville School (Ill.): In a note regarding the 369 pupils returned under query 5 the superintendent says, this is true as regards instructions, but teachers sometimes forget and use signs.

(7) Olathe School (Kan.): Superintendent Hammond writes: "Speech used outside of school room, i. e., on playgrounds, too slight and incidental to cut any figure."

(8) Faribault School (Minn.): Mr. J. N. Tate, the Superintendent, says: "As few signs as possible are used in all class-room work."

(9) Trenton School (N. J.): Mr. John P. Walker, the Principal, writes: "I regret to say that, observing closely, I find that my children, almost without exception, at some time or other during the term, use a little gesture and manual spelling."

(10) Washington Heights School (N. Y.): Mr. Enoch Henry Currier, the Principal, adds the following explanatory note to his report: "The major part of outside work is spelling. But as there are sometimes signs used in chapel, I have selected No. 5 as nearest. Signs are not used in instruction in either school or trade schools. We simply don't believe in repression."

(11) Rochester School (N. Y.): Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, the Superintendent, writes: "In reply to question No. 3, I may not have answered as you would like to have me, in the spirit of your question. All classes of every grade have daily one or more recitations in speech, in which manual spelling is not used; but these classes all have other exercises in which they depend largely upon manual spelling. Some of our pupils who have an especial facility in speech-reading and speech, rarely use spelling and they have no difficulty as all of the teachers always speak at the same time that they spell. Some of the pupils, a limited number, are not able either to spell or to read rapid spelling; speech and speech-reading are easier for them. They, however, practically shut themselves off from long conversations, from church and lecture 'translation' (or manual reading), from considerable that stimulates intellectual life, which can hardly be given the deaf except through manual spelling.

"There is also a limited number of our pupils who do not gain much through speech-reading and who make little success of speech. They are children who have defective sight, or who lack in imagination. While they have daily exercises in speech and speech-reading during their entire course, and are always favored by position as to light and nearness to the person speaking, or whatever else may seem desirable, they never accomplish much as speakers or speech-readers, and yet they do well as students. Two or three of these have come to us from oral schools, one of these through the imbecile asylum."

(12) Ashtabula School (Ohio): Mrs. Rosa Keeler writes: "I expect another pupil in a few days. All my pupils live in Ashtabula. In looking for deaf children I have found eight boys who are mentally deficient. Rather strange to find so many defective children in a town of this size."

(13) Cleveland School (O.): Miss Katherine E. Barry, the Principal, writes: "Among the number is one girl who will never be able to articulate distinctly, but she reads the lips and makes desperate attempts to speak."

(14) Columbus School (O.): Mr. J. W. Jones, Superintendent, makes the explanation regarding the pupils returned under 3, that speech is chiefly used, but occasionally signs and spelling.

(15) Salem School (Ore.): The statistics in the tables were taken from the Annals. The report of the Principal, Mr. Thomas P. Clarke, which was received too late for tabulation, is as follows: 1, 0; 2, 0; 3, 11; 4, 0; 5, 18; 6, 9; 7, 0; 8, 26; 9, 64. Mr. Clarke says: "All chapel exercises are conducted in the sign language and spelling."

(16) Cedar Spring School (S. C.): The returns are only for the white department. The number of colored children is not given.

(17) Sioux Falls School (S. D.): Articulation will be introduced into this school in September, 1904.

(18) Knoxville School (Tenn.): Regarding the pupils returned under 3 Mr. Thomas L. Moses, the Superintendent, adds: "Modified by the statement that speech is used to some extent as a means of instruction with these pupils." Of those under 7 he says "Spelling is resorted to occasionally."

(19) Austin School for Whites (Texas): Mr. J. W. Blattner, the Principal, writes: "In our beginning classes and some others, signs are not used at all, several of our teachers not knowing them, while in the rest of them signs are so little used that I hesitate about placing our oral classes under your heading No. 6."

(20) Ogden School (Utah): The figures given in answer to the queries are as follows: 1, 0; 2, 0; 3, 12; 4, 0; 5, 55; 6, 0; 7, 5; 8, 32; 9, 67. The following notes are appended: "Of the 55 pupils in answer to question number 5, twenty-three are oral, but they use the manual alphabet, both in school and out. Our chapel exercises are conducted by finger-spelling entirely."

(21) St. Francis School (Wis.): The figures given in answer to the queries are as follows: 1, 45; 2, 45; 3, 45; 4, 0; 5, 0; 6, 0; 7, 0; 8, 18; 9, 73.

(22) Halifax School (Nova Scotia): No figures are given in the returns from this school, but the Principal writes: "75 are taught by speech and writing alone. 26 are taught by spelling and writing alone. Nearly all know how to spell, as there is no separation of the manually and orally taught pupils outside of school hours." We have accordingly classified the pupils as given in the tables.

SUPPLEMENTARY NOTE: A report from the San Juan, Porto Rico, school was received, too late to give the figures place in the tables. The report gives the number of pupils in school March 31, 1904, as 22, and all entered under Query 6.

Teachers wishing positions and Superintendents wishing teachers may avail themselves of the office of the General Secretary of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf so far as it may be of service to them. The General Secretary aims to keep a list of teachers and one of superintendents, belonging to the above classes, for use by any person who may apply for them. Teachers filing their names and addresses with the General Secretary, should state the length and character of their experience, and give such other information as would be helpful to a Superintendent in making appointments. For reasons too obvious to state, the General Secretary requests teachers whose names are on the list to notify him at once upon their securing positions.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION TO PROMOTE THE TEACHING OF SPEECH TO THE DEAF.

The Annual meeting of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf was held at Clarke School, Northampton, Mass., at ten o'clock A. M., Friday, May 13, 1904.

In the absence of the President, Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, the First Vice-President, Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, called the meeting to order.

The following members of the Association were in attendance: Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, Caroline A. Yale, Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, Mrs. Z. F. Westervelt, E. A. Gruver, F. W. Booth, Frances W. Gawith, Bessie N. Leonard, Helen G. Throckmorton, Rachel Wilcox, Caroline S. Daniels, J. Evelyn Willoughby, Cora L. Blair, and Abby T. Baker.

The call for the meeting, issued by the President, and published in The Association Review for April, was read.

The minutes of the last annual meeting of the Association held in Boston, were read and duly approved.

The chairman announced that the first business of the meeting would be the consideration of the amendment to the Constitution offered at the last annual meeting, and that action would be taken at this meeting to adopt it or to reject it, a two-thirds vote being necessary to adopt. The amendment as offered reads as follows:

To amend Section 1, Article V, of the Constitution as follows:

In the second line, strike out the word "nine" and in its place insert "fifteen"; strike out the word "three" same line and insert "five"; and further add to the last sentence: "in case of failure of the President to appoint, by the Chairman of the meeting."

Upon motion of Mr. F. W. Booth the amendment was adopted, the vote for adoption being unanimous.

As amended Section 1, Article V, will read as follows:

The Board of Directors shall be composed of fifteen members of the Association five of whom shall be elected by the Association at each Annual Meeting, to serve for three years. Directors shall be elected by ballot, under the supervision of inspectors to

be appointed by the President; in case of failure of the President to appoint, by the Chairman of the meeting.

The Treasurer made report of the Association funds passing through his hands in the period from June 30, 1903, to May 13, 1904, as follows:

Balance as per report of June 30, 1903	$443 11

RECEIPTS.

Annual Life Membership Fee, Mrs. A. M. Bell	50 00
Annual Subscription of Alexander Graham Bell	1500 00
Annual Subscription of L. S. Fechheimer	25 00
Membership Dues	772 00
Subscriptions to Association Review	90 70
Advertising in Association Review	38 25
Sales of Publications	12 05
Income Bell Volta Fund and Endowment Fund	1138 48
Interest on bank deposits	29 65
	$4099 24

DISBURSEMENTS.

Salaries and wages account	$2395 00
Printing Association Review, four numbers	452 90
Printing job work and Circular of Information	41 10
Translating, reviewing, and contributions	157 60
Wrapping, mailing, and postage on Reviews	20 99
Stamps, telegraphing, express, and travelling	294 47
Illustrations	9 55
Fee for Treasurer's Bond	10 00
Life Membership Fee transferred to Endowment Fund	50 00
Balance	667 63
	$4099 24

May 13, 1904. F. W. BOOTH, *Treasurer.*

The Committee on Summer School, through its chairman, Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, reported progress and was continued.

The Committee appointed at the Boston meeting to cooperate with the Committee of the American Instructors of the Deaf in the presentation of exhibits at the St. Louis Exposition, reported though Mr. E. A. Gruver, a member of the Committee. Mr. Gruver as a part of his report read the "Circular of the American Association Committee" addressed to Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf, of date February 15, 1904, and signed by the Committee. (For this Circular see ASSOCIATION REVIEW, April, 1904.)

Statements were made by Superintendents present of what they had done in the way of sending exhibits of school work to the Exposition.

Mr. F. W. Booth then made a verbal report of his observations during his recent tour of southern schools for the deaf.

The chairman announced the next business in order the election of Directors, and stated that, as the amendment to the Constitution had been adopted, it would be necessary in order to complete the Board to elect five Directors for three years, two for two years, and two for one year. The nominations for the office of Director, previously submitted in writing to the President and Secretary, having been read, the election was proceeded with with the following result:

Directors elected to serve three years, Edmund Lyon, Richard O. Johnson, Caroline A. Yale, Harriet B. Rogers, Job Williams; to serve two years, Mary McCowen, R. C. Spencer; to serve one year, E. McK. Goodwin, Mrs. W. B. Weeden.

On motion of Dr. Z. F. Westervelt the General Secretary was directed to prepare and print for the use of the members a revised copy of the Constitution and By-Laws.

The General Secretary was on motion of Dr. Z. F. Westervelt directed and authorized to take steps looking to the raising of funds to enlarge the endowment and to insure the permanent financial support of the Association.

Meeting adjourned. F. W. B.

CAMP CHOCORUA (IN THE WHITE MOUNTAINS)

A Vacation School For Deaf and Hearing Boys

CONDUCTED BY S. G. DAVIDSON, M. A.

THIRD SUMMER, JUNE 25 TO SEPTEMBER 16.

Deaf children cannot afford to waste three months out of every twelve in idleness. This Camp School was established to enable them to continue their education during the summer months under conditions most favorable to mental and physical health.

Speech, Lip-reading, and Language are taught by experts, not only through the usual lessons, but in the more natural, and therefore more rapid and satisfactory way, through practical use in connection with real experiences. Arithmetic and other branches are also taught when desired. Special attention is paid to character development.

The boys enjoy fishing, bathing, boating, tramping, mountain climbing and all forms of outdoor sports. They are always accompanied by their teachers, both for protection and for purposes of instruction.

Address all communications to

S. G. DAVIDSON,
Mt. Airy, Philadelphia.

HELEN KELLER AT RADCLIFFE.

THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW.

VOL. VI, NO. 4.

OCTOBER, 1904.

A COMMANDMENT THAT SHOULD NOT BE OBEYED.

J. G. DE VRIES, GRONINGEN, HOLLAND.

Mrs. S. J. Munro's idea that a statement of what we ought *not* to do, is more likely to attract attention than one which tells us *what* we ought to do, speaks for her insight into human nature. Exactly what she had expected happened. The "Don'ts," in sundry issues of THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, she says, made quite a stir among the teachers of the deaf; letters of inquiry came in from various parts, both in America and abroad, all expressing a wish for more light. I wonder, however, now that the light has been let in upon the dark sayings, whether the inquirers will see clear through the matter and whether they will act up to the given precepts.

That by so many teachers information was asked for, proves that the results obtained in teaching speech to the deaf do not satisfy them, as, indeed, they do none of us.

It is true, we are getting ahead: by patient, painstaking labor; by applying the practical hints of phonetists; by lengthening the time of the course of articulation to beginners; by reducing the number of pupils in the first classes, we have, indeed, attained to greater perfection, both in the art of speaking and of lip-reading among our pupils; but, after all, we should like it to be done still better.

Is it surprising, then, that we should be steadily on the lookout for means that can either facilitate our work or benefit our pupils in the acquirement of speech?

But no more than a physician will prescribe to his patients a specific recommended to sufferers in puffing advertisements, without having been able to testify its indisputable efficacy, no more will an experienced teacher readily accept all sorts of means and ways that are held out to him as leading infallibly to the end desired.

But then, cannot we put the recommended novelty to the test and give it a fair trial? Yes, we can, and we even should, if the new is in accordance with well-proved pedagogical rules, or with duly established truths. If, however, we can furnish proofs to the contrary, if we can show that the adduced arguments for dealing in some particular manner lack solid foundation, shall we then, by trying it, risk the danger of losing our precious time?

Now, I think, I am able to make plain that by going the way shown us by Mrs. Munro, we are likely not to hit our aim, especially if we follow the advice given in statement III, which includes many of the others:

"Don't allow a pupil to feel the vibration of the voice in the throat."

This warning is sure to have startled nearly all the readers of THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, and I am confident that they were all desirous of seeing the "Why" coming forward. Let us see what proofs Mrs. Munro adduces to substantiate her contention:

"1. When attention is called to any active agent of the body, we become conscious of that part and the thoughts are centered there. This concentration of the thoughts increases the activity of the agent, and often to an exaggerated degree.

"2. In the correct use of the vocal apparatus, the activity is at the diaphragm.

"3. The vocal bands are acted upon by the breath, but are not in themselves active in producing voice.

"4. The different parts of the vocal apparatus should act *in harmony*, and when we direct the efforts of speaking to the vocal bands, that harmony is destroyed."

Let us now consider each statement separately. The principle laid down in the first of them underlies the reasoning and arguing of nearly all the "Don'ts." That we become conscious of an active agent when our attention is directed to it, is true,

though one might find fault with the statement that the thoughts are centered *there,* i. e., in the part in question. But saying that the concentration of the thoughts increases the activity of the agent holds good only for *voluntary* movements. My thinking of the beating of my heart, or pulses, or of the contraction and dilation of my diaphragm, does not accelerate their movements. These remarks, however, are immaterial to the matter with which we occupy ourselves. A question of much greater importance is the following:

Must, or must we not, call the attention of the deaf pupil to the active agents that cooperate in uttering articulated sounds? Mrs. Munro is convinced that we must not, and she appeals to the dealings of the best teachers of hearing pupils who for many years have not interfered with the working of the vocal chords.

But we know that what is one's man meat may be another man's poison, and to accept methods in our schools only because of their yielding good fruits in schools for the hearing, may prove fatal in the end.

It must always be borne in mind that speech with a *deaf* child is quite another thing than with us. To a deaf child speech is nothing but *optical* and *tactual* sensations; that with us it is, substantially, an acoustic process will forever remain a secret to him. Teaching speech to a deaf child is, and will be, therefore, something *artificial.*

With us the required muscular tensions and motions for producing tone are, under the control of the ear, brought about *unconsciously*; the speech-learning deaf-mute must perform these operations with *consciousness.* The attention of the deaf beginner *must needs* be drawn to the various active organs that cooperate in forming speech. We *must* show the child the positions of our tongue, our lips—and it is to be regretted and is a great annoyance that so much *cannot* be shown him. Suppose that the soft palate, the pharynx, the vocal chords could be made clearly visible to our pupils, would not Mrs. Munro, as well as all of us, hasten to show them their several positions in speaking? And now that we cannot do *this,* must not we have recourse to the only means that is left us, of lessening their pains in carrying out what we want them to do? This means is the sense of feeling;

we must let the pupils feel the movements of our larynx, as far as is possible, and especially the vibrations of the vocal chords.

But says Mrs. Munro: "The vocal chords are *acted upon* by the breath, but are not *active* in producing voice."

I could scarcely believe my eyes when I read this. What, a special teacher of speech and voice-training should deny that there is a tension of the muscles which stretch and stiffen the vocal bands for tone vibration and should state that only the muscles that drive the air from the lungs are active in producing voice! Is there not a reaction *against* as well as a propulsive action *upon* the vocal current? And can we suppose Mrs. Munro to be ignorant of the fact that a deficiency in the contraction of the vocal bands is one of the causes that produce those gruff hoarse voices which are often heard among speaking deaf persons; whereas, too great a tightening of the vocal chords brings forth the equally unpleasant, strained, and shrill quality of the voice? And if Mrs. Munro should know all this, what on earth does she mean by saying that the vocal bands are *passive?* Does she mean that the closing and opening of the vocal chords is attendant upon the contraction and relaxation of the muscles of the diaphragm? The question is too absurd to be asked in earnest.

And if the producing of voice is dependent on the tension of the vocal chords—as it undoubtedly is—how is the deaf pupil to know whether he has hit upon the right degree of tension if we don't allow him to feel it at our throat? It may not always meet with success, but there is no better means that I know of.

In Dutch, German, and many other languages, vowels at the beginning of a word or syllable are mostly uttered by closing the vocal chords entirely, and then suddenly giving free passage to the compressed air. How can we give the pupil a better notion of that peculiar glottis-click than by letting him feel it?

If the pupil's voice is either too high or too low, how can we better signify this to him than by letting him feel at our throat that the Adam's apple in the first case must be lowered and in the other case raised? How to teach him the difference between voiced and voiceless consonants; the difference in stress of the vowels forming a diphthong; the difference of accent in words

and sentences? Best of all by the help of the sense of feeling.

But *doing* a thing is of course not the same as *overdoing* it. If the teacher of speech avoids all *superfluous* contractions of the facial and neck-muscles, if he speaks *distinctly* but *naturally*, there is not a single reason why the *harmony* in the action of the different parts of the vocal apparatus should be destroyed by paying *equal* attention to them all, the vocal-chords included, seeing that they are all indispensable in the production of speech, and the latter not the least.

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.[1]

G. FERRERI, ROME, ITALY.

CHAPTER II.

The Methods of Instruction in the American Schools for the Deaf.

The principal object of my visit to the United States and of my investigations in that country, was the thorough examination of the methods employed in the instruction of the Deaf there.

I had not been able to form a clear idea of the state of affairs from the reports of the respective institutions there; neither had my encounter with some of the American colleagues at the last Congress at Paris sufficed to make me understand the marvellous work which they are accomplishing for the benefit of the Deaf in that great federation. Only a direct examination of the actual conditions of the schools and the objective and comparative study of the results obtained could enlighten me as to the didactic value of the methods employed and as to the present state of many vital questions of our special pedagogy.

If I have been able, as I hope, to attain this object, it is due to the courteous hospitality of my American colleagues, who always and everywhere received me with brotherly kindness and freely gave me the explanations and information which I demanded from time to time. In this way my task was made much easier than I could have hoped for, as I was able to visit at my ease all the classes, and to speak with the teachers so as to have, according as the case might be, all the necessary explanations of the means used in this or that method of teaching, or in this or that lesson.

I must therefore express my gratitude to the Amercian col-

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[1]Translated for The Association Review by the author. Begun in the June, 1904, number.

leagues, to whom I never found it necessary to present the letter of introduction kindly given me by the Hon. Mr. Harris, Commissioner of the Bureau of Education at Washington, for they all welcomed me like an old and esteemed friend. My thoughts return most frequently, however, to the kindness and generosity offered to me in Washington by Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, by my colleague, Dr. E. A. Fay, and by Prof. A. Graham Bell, who really seemed to rival one another in facilitating the task which I had undertaken in coming to the United States.

I owe a special debt of gratitude, however, to Dr. Fay, for as soon as he knew of the suspension of my magazine "L'Educazione dei Sordomuti," he at once placed at my disposal the pages of the "American Annals," of which I immediately availed myself in order to say a word on the battle of methods (American Annals, January, 1902). I wish to recall this fact because this article was the first of my *American notes* in regard to the education of the Deaf. And also because it shows the difference of my first impression of the didactic conditions of the American schools with those of later study and reflection.

After all, I am glad to be able to say now that those first impressions not only never suffered substantial modification, but, indeed, were always more and more confirmed by the observations I made later while visiting the schools.

But let us come now to the particular description of the methods employed in the American schools for the instruction of the Deaf.

These methods, according to the definition published by Dr. Fay, are five. We must, in fact, consider five different groups of the various didactic expedients already well known in the schools of Europe, as well as used at present with various success on both sides of the Atlantic. One may say in conclusion that the American schools really have no special methods. In the United States, as in Europe, there are model oral schools where they employ the pure oral method, such as was proclaimed at the Congress at Milan (1880), and then confirmed at that in Paris (1900). There are also, as in Europe, schools based upon systems variously combined, but, after all, they fall back upon the systematic mimic of the old French school.

If, however, a difference may be made, it consists in the circumstance that while in Europe, and especially in Italy, we discuss theories but find great difficulty in putting them into practice, because of the lack of indispensable moral and material means, the American colleagues go forward with the practice and leave theoretical discussion for by and by. They are in the enviable condition of being able to prove what shall later be demonstrated as useful and good. They find in the committee of administration and in the principals of their schools all the material and moral support they need for the exercise of their mission. They are given ample liberty in their experiments and in the distribution of the lessons, and the prestige so gained raises their personal importance to their pupils and to the visitors of the school.

I have never met in America such Presidents and Principals as in many of our institutes, whose ridiculous self-importance —like that of the fly in the fable who believed it was driving the coach—makes them a special type. However, one must understand that the American deaf-mutes are the children of their own parents, and are never humiliated by being obliged to recognize another father or mother in the President or the Principal, on just the *show-day* or the day of public examinations. This circumstance was so consoling that I felt a sense of relief at my very first visit to a foreign school.

But let us return to America!

As I was saying, therefore, the didactic means put into practice in the American schools may be grouped as follows:

I. *Manual Method.*—Natural and methodical mimic, manual alphabet, and writing. As Dr. Fay justly observes, the greater or less importance given in the various schools to one or the other of these didactic means cannot alter definition and qualification of the manual method, because it is substantially only a difference of degree, but the aim is the same in all, and may be summed up in the general purpose: 1, to develop the mental power of the pupils; and 2, to accustom them to the use of written language.

I will add on my own account, that this double purpose has been attained everywhere in the American Schools, whatever

the method applied may be; because the course of study in not limited, as with us, to the brief space of six to eight years of school. In regard, however, to the value of the particular means employed, I have noticed that the knowledge and use of language —two things which they obtain in America even with the Deaf of little intelligence—are due more to the liberal use of written language than to the mimic or to the manual alphabet. Certainly the manual alphabet is a great aid in the security and rapidity of the communication and of the corrections. In this statement, however, I only confirm my previous opinions on the matter, and do not intend to say that I approve of the combination of didactic means to the detriment of the pronunciation and of lip-reading. I only wish to confirm what I have written on this subject for years. Those of my colleagues who are acquainted with my previous writings will certainly remember that I always maintained that the intellectual development of the Deaf in the ancient French school was due principally to the efficacy of written language and not to the poverty, uncertainty, and arbitrariness of the mimic.

II. *The Manual Alphabet.*—With this title is designated really the method of the written form, but has its cause in the circumstance that while the teachers and pupils use their hands in the school, they exclude the systematic mimic, and direct the attention to written language, of which the manual alphabet is always a secondary form or reproduction. As to its object, it is the same as with all systems, and I believe that this can be attained more surely and quickly with the exclusion of the mimic element, if they can succeed in fact in doing this, which does not seem to me possible.

III. *The Oral Method.*—Speech and speech-reading, assisted by writing and by object lessons are the chief means of instruction. Besides the object alluded to of mental development and the consequent knowledge and use of language, is added the ability of the pupils to speak and to read speech from the lips.

IV. *The Auricular Method.*—It aims at developing to the greatest possible extent the hearing of semi-deaf pupils, who from time to time enter the schools for the deaf because they are not

able to receive instruction in the common schools, or because they have been classified and accepted as deaf-mutes from the lack of an accurate examination of their state of hearing. The means used in this method are, the teaching of language by hearing, with the occasional aid of artificial appliances, and speech and lip-reading. The ideal aim of this system is to send back its pupils to the social world as hard-of-hearing speaking people instead of deaf-mutes.

V. *The Combined System.*—Speech and speech-reading are regarded as very important, but mental development and the acquisition of language are considered still more important. They believe—and in my opinion erroneously—that this double object is better obtained with the application of the combined system than with the simple oral method.

Given these definitions it would seem to be an easy task to establish and represent numerically the percentage of the Deaf who are instructed by means of this or that method. In reality, however, such is not the case. Indeed, for some years a controversy has been going on between the advocates of the combined system and those of the oral method in regard to just this question of the modality and the result of this calculation. The defenders of the combined system, while admitting that the teaching of speech and speech-reading is not excluded from the majority of the schools based upon the combined system, still do not believe that the pupils of these schools can be said to be instructed by means of speech. The others, although recognizing the fact that speech taught under certain conditions does not correspond to the ideal of the oral method, still believe that the acceptation of speech as an important element in the various combinations of systems, constitutes of itself a degree of development and of expansion. Hence the disagreement, more apparent than real, between the statistics compiled annually by Dr. Fay, and published by him at the beginning of each volume of the "American Annals," and the summary of these same statistics as made by Prof. A. G. Bell, at first in a special publication of the *Volta Bureau,* and lately in the periodical "The Association Review." I believe that the disagreement is caused by the indefinite denomination of the combined systems. As, for example, Dr. Gallaudet at the last

Congress of the Educators of the Deaf held at Buffalo, in 1901, affirmed that for three years the oral method had not made one step forward in the schools of the United States. Now this may be quite true in the sense that no school had changed from the combined system to that of the pure oral method. But as much in the oral schools as in those of the combined system the progress of the teaching of speech is a real fact of every day, just as it is an equally incontestable fact that there is a progressive diffusion of knowledge as to the usefulness and the possibility of teaching speech to the Deaf. While, in fact, ten or twenty years ago they would not have any thing to do with the oral method in many institutes, today they have special classes with oral teachers.

From the most recent statistics it is shown that among 11,000 pupils in course of instruction, more than 7,000 are instructed, more or less well, by means of articulated speech.

The variously combined systems are most largely employed in the great boarding schools. Articulate speech and speech-reading are used as the principal means of instruction in the majority of the day-schools (44 of 50 schools). As to private schools, one may say that speech is taught more or less in all, they being classified thus: *ten* of the combined system and *six* of the oral method.

Another point of controversy, and a more substantial one, is found in the estimation of the comparative merits of the methods referred to.

The advocates of eclecticism in the various combinations of didactic means, hold that the mimic facilitates the mental development of the pupils. In fact, they affirm that the teaching of speech in the first years of instruction is a loss of time. They recognize its utility, but they think—and here is the mistake according to my opinion—that it can be taught later. I have heard them say: "They will speak by and by." "But you forget," I have replied, "that you have to do with deaf-mutes, and if they are not trained when very young, they will never speak."

There are not lacking, however, among the American colleagues, those who believe and who know from experience that the Oral method is, and will remain, the most adapted for the social

education of the Deaf. There are those who believe and who know from experience that either speech must be taught from the beginning and alone—that is, without associating it with the mimic and the manual alphabet—or it cannot be taught with satisfactory results. There are those who believe and who know from experience that when a deaf-mute—apart from organic defects of the vocal apparatus—has not enough intelligence to learn spoken language, neither will he ever succeed in learning the written language, no matter by what system he is taught.

In these opinions, which I have long professed as a teacher who is notoriously an oralist, or even an *extremist* as some of my English and American colleagues might say, the observations which I have had the opportunity of making in the schools based upon the Combined system have only confirmed me.

I have seen in the field of practice that the advantages are nothing but presumptions, which they give of the combination of the mimic with other didactic expedients in the schools for the Deaf. And therefore I can affirm anew:

1. That it is not true—given the length of the course and the favorable conditions of the American schools—that teaching speech retards mental development and the acquisition of language;

2. That with the Deaf of little intelligence, the Manual method does not effect—except in a few rare cases—a higher degree of mental development and of knowledge of written language;

3. That with the same psychic conditions and the same time dedicated to instruction, they do not go farther in general culture with the combined system than with the pure oral method.

As to the first of these three advantages, I can assert today, as before taking this journey, that the oral method in the schools for the Deaf not only does not retard mental development and the acquisition of language, but rather it attains these ends sooner, impressing upon the deaf children from earliest infancy the social duty of putting themselves into human relationship with

their fellows by the acquisition and use of speech. Hence, besides the object already mentioned, the oral method also attains another, which is that of bringing the Deaf more and more into contact with society.

I shall always remember with a sense of compassion the lament of a deaf youth to me, who was just beginning to learn to speak, and who had come to me for help in correcting and improving his imperfect pronunciation. "I feel very sad," he said to me, writing his declaration in good English, "when I think how I might have been taught speech from the beginning of my education and when I was still a child. Now I understand that it is too late, and it would be such an advantage to make myself understood like many others more fortunate than me." Then he asked me, with a certain envious curiosity, whether in travelling about I often came across deaf-mutes gesticulating in the streets and public places. I recall this case in order to express with the words of one the regret of many, of whom we should think when we are shocked by the resolutions passed at a Congress of the Deaf in favor of a return to the Mimic. And they quote the Congresses as if from them came the voice of the majority. But the majority of the Deaf are not found in the meeting-places of the Congresses—more or less international—where the Mimic and the manual alphabet may still seem the natural means of communication between the Deaf; but the poor creatures are found at work in remote places less populous, where a word pronounced and read from the lips would be more useful and more advantageous to them than vocabularies of synonyms, or the ability to translate their thoughts by means of the manual alphabet into the most correct English. They quote the Congresses, but they do not consider that these Congresses do not and cannot represent the great majority of the Deaf, whether because it is not possible for them to attend these assemblies, or because they do not think it is well for them to separate themselves in a moment of mutual zeal and of college memories, when they must pass their entire lives among those who speak in order to gain the means of subsistence by their help, or, at least by their direction, to gain it by their own activity.

If one considers all this, and if it were possible to have an

honest plebiscite of the intelligent Deaf who are obliged to remain isolated for life, one may be sure that the Oral method would be preferred, and first of all by those who have not been permitted to enjoy by its means the social advantages which they see assured to their younger companions in misfortune.

For this reason the colleagues of the United States certainly propose a great benefit for the Deaf of their nation in the progressive adoption and development of the oral method. This adoption and development of the Oral method is their duty, from the moment that the public conscience, the public administration, and the organized societies ask nothing else than to aid their undertaking and to contribute to the progress of every branch of the national education.

One thing which now no one doubts is, that the Oral method requires a greater abundance of means than that of the old school. It is necessary in the first place to have twice or three times the number of teachers, and larger buildings are required, and greater watchfulness over the pupils outside of school hours. Now in a country where the board of education and the administration are not parsimonious in providing this and other means, the Oral instruction of the Deaf assumes the character of a social duty. The American colleagues understand this perfectly, and they rival each other in improving their schools in every respect. Therefore, I can dispense with the cavils of statistics—which for various reasons cannot yet be well determined—to demonstrate that in the United States the Oral method is in continual progress and that there are institutions there in which, although they are classified as schools based upon the combined system, the Oral method progresses from day to day and which are rapidly transforming themselves into Oral schools. The change from the Mimic to Speech was difficult and slow in all the European schools, more from lack of means than from weakness of faith in the teachers. In the United States it is perhaps the contrary which happens, and it is owing to the indecision and to the imperfection of the experiment if in some schools which started with the Oral method, they have returned, after various changes, to the Mimic. I think I do not err, however, in affirming that this period of transition is at present sur-

mounted, as I have been able to observe on the spot itself what noble efforts are made in the great institutions, as that of the celebrated one of Pennsylvania, to employ with greater efficacy and wider extension the teaching of speech. I think, too, that when one can say, as Dr. Fay does, that the differences in the use of speech as the principal means of instruction are questions of degree, one has reason to hope that little by little these degrees will resolve themselves into the complete and unconditional employment of the pure oral method. This inference is not arbitrary when one reflects that also in the countries of Europe there has been the same forward march in the evolution of the Oral method. To the Congresses of Siena (1873) and of Lyons (1879) succeeded those of Milan (1880) and of Paris (1900). The acts of these Congresses describe exactly the process indicated above; just as the appellative *pure German method* is found in the Acts of the National Congress of Germany, from that of Berlin to that of Hamburg (1900). Besides, the Oral method has this good quality, that it suffices in itself to convince the stubborn opponent of its worth, and, if one is only careful not to exaggerate, history repeats itself everywhere without there being any need of enforcing it with the artifices of logic and rhetoric.

As to the Deaf of little intelligence, I have but few words to add to what I have already had occasion to maintain in various instances.

In America I found that some of my colleagues persist in believing that a combined system of gesture, writing, and even articulate speech serves better to awaken the intelligence of the feeble-minded Deaf, or at least serves to give them a surer and quicker knowledge of written language. I respect their opinion; but in my visits to the schools of the United States I have always taken special notice of the weak-minded Deaf, and I have been able to ascertain that the theory of the Combined system does not correspond with the practical results. The weak-minded Deaf find everywhere, and with whatever method of instruction, the same difficulties in learning the *psychic contents* of the word. Now this difficulty is especially manifested in their exercises of written language. In examining on the spot their exercises I have en-

countered the same poverty of form and substance[1] with which I was already acquainted, by experience, in the weak-minded pupils of the Oral schools. I continue therefore to maintain that the defect in learning language as an instrument of elaborated thought, is the same for the Deaf of little intelligence instructed by the Oral method as for those instructed by the Mimic and writing, and it is not just to deprive these Pariahs of the intellect of the small oral vocabulary by whose use they could, in any case, extricate themselves from difficulty in the urgent needs of life. Because the next point of discussion as to the merits of the Oral method will be this. It is admitted by some that the acquisition of mechanical speech stands in proportion to the intelligence of the individual. This, however, is an error nearly equal to that of classifying as totally deaf the cases more or less certain of congenital deafness. The aptitude—congenital or acquired—for finding in the vocal organs the translation of the symbols called up by perceived speech is quite another thing from the development of the ideogenous and psychic centres, and one may frequently meet with a deaf-mute who is quite imbecile but can repeat words with clearness and skill, while an intelligent deaf-mute would meet with great difficulty in doing so, because of a defect of coordination or of innervation. In fact there are many very intelligent Deaf who, for some reason or other, do not succeed in acquiring a clear and fluid pronunciation, while others much less intelligent are able to justify the expenses of the sensational public examinations, and serve in any case as horses of parade. But we will return to this later. At present it is sufficient to say that it is not true that the Deaf make greater progress in learning language when it is taught them by means of writing and the manual alphabet, instead of by speech. And with this the third point laid down is answered implicitly. With the same intelligence and the same time dedicated to their instruction, I did not find the Deaf instructed by means of the Mimic more advanced in instruction than those

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[1]I have seen cases where the poor deaf-mute labored to find on his fingers the symbols of the alphabet in order to repeat to the teacher a word or a short sentence already written many times in his copy-book or on his slate.

from the Oral schools. In order to ascertain this I have asked in the high schools and in the higher classes which correspond to the eleventh and twelfth years of instruction, whether all the pupils were able to use written language with equal correctness, and the reply was always this: that some mistakes and imperfections always occurred in the exercises written, especially in regard to the syntax. In the direct investigation which I made in many of the schools, the result was the same. I made this experiment. On entering the last class of the course, I invited the pupils (boys and girls of from 16 to 20 years of age) to ask me questions in writing, to which I replied one by one either in speech or writing according to the ability of the pupil in speech-reading and in the use of speech. In the Oral schools after a few questions the exercise changed into a real and true conversation, while in the schools of the Manual or Combined system the questions and answers to the very end were made with writing. I took care to carry away with me—with the kind consent of the teachers and to the great satisfaction of the pupils—many pages on which were written these improvised questions and answers, and I can say that I did not find any difference between those who translated with incredible rapidity the questions on their fingers, and those who had asked me in speaking aloud. This experiment I tried without fail in every higher class of the institutions I visited.

In some of the schools I made this other trial. I begged the teacher to have the pupils write something on a given subject, as for example *Rome, Italy, my presence* in the class, or, explaining the object of my visit, I asked them to express in writing what would most interest them to learn from me. As you see, the subjects were very unlike. However, if I met with any great difference between the pupils, it was never owing to the system employed in their instruction, but rather to the intelligence of each, and also to their temperament. These written experiments, how they convinced me that our colleagues in America by reason of surroundings and time disposable, are going far ahead of us! They also confirmed the truth, indisputable for me, that with the same intellectual conditions the Deaf instructed by means of speech have, in comparison with the others, the advan-

tage of being able to turn and speak with any one and to reply in the most natural manner possible; and this renders them more affable and gives them an intimate satisfaction of spiritual well-being.

One could, of course, dispute about the clearness of pronunciation and the facility of the voice; but I, confronted with such questions, always reply, that the deaf-mute rendered a speaker by art, cannot become an artist of the spoken or of the sung word, and that some acoustic practice will be necessary on the part of those who must live with them, or who have to do with them for reasons of work or service. But, notwithstanding this, a word pronounced opportunely or read from the lips will always be worth more in practical life, than the knowledge of an entire vocabulary of gestures of the highest psychic and scientific meaning.

DEPARTMENT OF SPECIAL EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION—REPORT OF THE PROCEEDINGS.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES.

FIRST SESSION.—Wednesday, June 29, 1904.

The Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association met in the Assembly Hall of the Mines and Metallurgy Building, Louisiana Purchase Exposition Grounds, St. Louis, at 2.30 P. M., President J. W. Jones in the chair.

Included among those in attendance were: J. W. Jones, Superintendent of the Ohio School for the Deaf; Hon. R. C. Spencer, Milwaukee, Wis.; Miss Anna E. Shaefer, State Inspector of Schools for the Deaf, Madison, Wis.; Miss Mary McCowen, Supervising Principal of the Chicago Day Schools; Miss Cornelia D. Bingham, head of the McCowen Oral School; Miss E. Montgomery, and others of the Chicago Day Schools; Dr. Noble B. McKee, Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Deaf; Dr. D. P. McMillan, Head of the Child Study Department of the Chicago Public Schools; Miss Mary R. Campbell, of the Chicago Hospital School for Nervous Children; S. M. Green, Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Blind; J. H. Freeman, Superintendent of the Illinois School for the Blind; Prof. Percival Hall of Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C.; Miss Mary L. Guthrie; and Miss Elizabeth Van Adestine, Principal of the Detroit Day School for the Deaf.

The proceedings were opened by the President, Mr. J. W. Jones, in the following address:

I wish to express my appreciation of the honor conferred upon me by an election to the presidency of this department. Special education has its place in our great school system and it is right and proper that those engaged in it should meet on the broadest possible basis and exchange ideas. By special education we mean the education of special classes, usually known as defectives, such as the deaf, blind, feeble-minded, and those both deaf and blind, rather than the education in special subjects of the normal child.

Our work, then—what is it? How are we faring compared with teachers in the ordinary schools? Our pupils—what of their gain as compared with what it would be in the ordinary school, and the organization of our schools as compared with the organizations in the ordinary school? These are all interesting questions.

Schools for special education are state or city schools whose pupils are generally surrendered by parents for the term and whose conduct in and out of school is arranged for by the management of the school, and city day schools for deaf children. Everything at once becomes systematic and regular—wholesome food, sufficient play, an abundance of sleep, diversified work, regular study, and punctual attendance in school. These advantages, though great, are not fully recognized and appreciated by educators. It is impossible to secure them in ordinary schools where children are responsible to their parents out of school hours and therefore it appears useless to lay stress upon what is impracticable. But to one who has had experience in watching results in special schools where the management controls in and out of school, the advantages are so superior as to make him wonder if the question is not of sufficient importance to engage the attention of educators generally. In special schools also is found a much greater variety of instruction than is found in ordinary schools. In addition to a varied curriculum of studies, are found all kinds of manual and industrial training, a complete art school, gymnasium, domestic science, fancy needle-work, music when the pupils can hear, trade schools and specialties of almost all kinds where few or many pupils are taught to be useful and self-supporting. The sense of which the children in these schools is bereft is compensated for in a measure by the varied opportunities to develop a special talent without cost, or to learn the great lesson of doing things right.

The manual training afforded is a wonderful help to these children in both their physical and mental development. They return to their homes for vacation and parents note the ease with which they can turn their hands to do things. This is especially true of the deaf children. It is not an uncommon thing for parents to say their deaf child is more useful and helpful than any of their other children. From this we conclude that the state could afford to do more in the ordinary schools to train the hand and eye to work in unison with the mind. This will cost more money, but it will make more efficient men and women and the state will have its return in them.

Children from special schools go back to their homes better housekeepers, have more modern ideas, and exert an influence for better things.

It is true that there is a larger percentage of objectionable children in our special schools and that the average of intelligence is, even in the schools for the deaf and blind, not as high as is found in the ordinary schools for the reason that the same causes that destroy sight and hearing often affect the mentality as well. It is also true that when the sense only is affected the mind is quickened and intensified, the character is beautiful, and the disposition sweet. It is a joy to have such children as pupils. The deaf children are especially attractive and interesting. I am told by those who work with the blind that their perception is keen, their ideas often original, and their memories so strong that it is a pleasure to teach them. It is not expected that the feeble-minded can be educated to a high standard. The fact of their mental weakness makes this impossible. Many, of course, cannot be educated at all. But in proportion to the ability and expectancy these unfortunate children are far better off than they could possibly be in the ordinary school at home or left to the taunts of neighboring children.

The work of educating the special classes is very important. One of the most necessary conditions is their segregation. Under the plan adopted and methods pursued in all our states and a few cities, we see the deaf and blind highly educated, sometimes in general knowledge, sometimes in special lines, but always to the point of usefulness. They do not become beggars, but industrious and self-supporting children. When you see a deaf or blind person begging, you must not think he represents his class, for he is the rare exception and in all probability was never in a special school. These habits are sometimes taught by indolent and thoughtless parents, but when the child goes to school he is too proud of his acquirements when he returns to his home to acknowledge by such an act that he is not capable of taking care of himself. There are many reasons why the pupils in special schools are proportionately better educated, considering their disadvantages, than are the children in the ordinary schools. We have already spoken of regular attendance, regular study, systematic living, diversified opportunities, manual and industrial training. Teachers are generally much more carefully selected and their preparation and work are more carefully supervised. This is especially true in a state school where the superintendent has the entire field from which to make his selections and is free from local influences which often secure the appointment of incompetent persons as teachers in the ordinary schools. The services of good teachers once being secured, the tenure of appointment is almost certain, the remuneration is satisfactory, and the results are bound to be the best. Teachers in the ordinary schools are always interested, surprised, and pleased when they visit the special schools. They are at once struck with the thoroughness of the work done and the satisfactory results secured. They learn the value of simplicity and illustration. They see the full force of objective teaching. In the special school they see the object, the action, the thing done, and then they watch the mental process of the child to express in English what their eyes have seen and the mind has thought. It has taken time, but no energy has been lost. Something has been done. They also find some special schools better equipped with working material, hand-made charts, useful pictures, supplementary books, and every day use being made of it all.

Not only in detailed work of instruction do the special schools keep abreast of the times, but the work as a whole is added to by discoveries growing out of scientific, sanitary, economic, and sociological investigations. The attention of those interested in these discoveries is called to the papers to be presented in this meeting. I desire to call your atttention especially to the advanced step taken in the Ohio School of Feeble-Minded Youth for the care of the adult of this class. The able Superintendent of that Institution, Dr. G. A. Doren, who has had charge of the Institution since its founding, nearly fifty years ago, has succeeded in having the state legislature provide a custodial farm of sufficient acreage to give employment to the adult feeble-minded of the state, and in such a way that the sexes are entirely separated, not only from each other but from society at large. The prime object of this movement is to lessen propagation of their own kind. As statistics show that the offspring of the feeble-minded is almost always imbecile this is doubtless a great step towards lessening the percentage of this unfortunate class of people, and in time, the expense of maintaining a school for such children may be lessened. But whether it be or not, the good of society is served by this segregation, and the welfare and happiness of the feeble-minded themselves is immeasurably increased.

The advanced work in speech and lip-reading which the deaf schools are doing, the increased opportunities for the education of those who are both deaf and blind, as exemplified by Helen Keller, Tommy Stringer, Oren Benson, Leslie Oren, and many others, show the efforts that are being put forth by these special schools to better the condition of all classes and to restore to the light of the world those who would otherwise spend a life in darkness and misery.

This is a great work in which we are engaged. To work with children is a blessing to any one who has true love in the heart. But to engage in a work with and for defective children—those who are often burdens to helpless parents, or sometimes castaways of wicked ones, to instruct, enlighten, and make useful those who can be, and to care for, employ, direct, and teach a little those who have but little mind, is the greatest work. Its conception, organization, and fruition is akin to an obedience to the Master's call, "Go ye into the world and teach all people."

A paper on "What Teachers may Learn from the Model Schools of the Deaf and Blind and their Exhibits at this Exposition," was presented by S. M. Green, Superintendent of the Missouri School for the Blind, St. Louis, as follows:

In the advance in recent years of educational spirit and methods to the point where the whole child is considered, where his body is trained as well as his mind developed, where his social and ethical impulses are directed by a sound judgment, we approach the ideal training of the young citizen to be, for the duties and relations of future citizen life.

In schools for special classes of pupils, such as the blind and deaf, this advance is of special beneficence, though the problems encountered are not so easily solved as in schools for the normal child. Such training of faculties and powers as equip the child for self-support is for the defective classes a problem unsatisfactorily solved and subject to constant revision.

The teacher of the normal child, as he approaches the work of the deaf and the blind, may be greatly helped by observing the mental processes and intellectual tendencies of the two classes so handicapped in the acquisition of knowledge.

As by far the greater number of sense percepts come through the eye, the blind child has a much more narrow basis of knowledge than the deaf child, compares and classifies his percepts more frequently, knows what he knows more thoroughly, and is more dogmatic in his expression of the truth so gained. He early becomes accustomed to a mental vizualization of his percepts, which can be greatly utilized by the teacher in leading him to the unknown, for it is to this intuitive grasp of the idea, and its ready expression in language, so difficult for the deaf, that the blind child owes his intellectual life. "It is the soul that sees." It is then not surprising, that as the words come trippingly from his tongue, that the blind child overrates his acquisition, while the deaf child, with his brain flooded with sense percepts—gained through the eye, usually lacking the concentration common to the blind, who have not these distractions—understands the thing seen and its relations, but does not always compare and classify or pass to the abstract contemplation of the idea. With a brain a confused register of sense impressions, he cannot translate his knowledge in terms intelligible to others, and becomes distrustful of his ability to apprehend the idea, which he is unable to clarify by expression in language.

The deaf child has the idea, the blind child, too often, but the sign of the idea.

The beneficent results of developing the whole child, by the manual work and domestic science occupations, are especially felt in schools for the blind and deaf. Limited as is each in sense activity, the wholesome effects are particularly felt by the blind child, who finds the outer world unfolding to him as successive, not simultaneous, acts of sense perception, as in the case with his deaf brother, bring it to his consciousness. His own activity makes the idea vivid. To put the sloyd hammer in his hands, gives him a clear cut idea of the tool itself, and to use it opens a new world of activity. If the first tendency in using be iconoclastic, it needs only direction to become constructive.

The making of the flower stands, the picture frames, the chairs, opens to him the joy of self-expression, and regarding those objects at least, no more are his ideas formless and inaccurate. The blind girl in sewing and using the utensils of cooking has now the clear cut idea made vivid by her own participation in the process of construction, and no longer the word, as the vague symbol of thought, is the sole fruit of her efforts. The joy of becoming a useful member of the family and sharing in the world's work, transforms existence to a class hitherto assigned to the chimney corner. This training of the hand and the muscles awakens the motor center of the brain and stimulates neighboring areas, producing more normal activity, which results in clearer and more sustained thinking power.

The deaf child, with its wealth of percepts gained through the eye, is baffled in his attempts to use the symbols of thought, his ideas becoming vague from the inability to clothe them in fitting language, demonstrating to us how language does clarify thought.

Right here I would suggest that the great deficiency in the instruction of these two classes of pupils is the lack of nature study.

The sense perception of the blind may be greatly increased by introducing into the school more science study, not the dry formulas and theories, but the vital facts, which they may classify and compare themselves. The blind needs to go to the fields to know his neighbor birds and flowers, to gather the common plants and grains, to learn the size and varieties of animal life, to observe the variations of temperature, moisture, and direction of the wind from his own knowledge, not from the hearsay of others.

That this can be done, I cite a class of blind pupils, of which five gathered, classified, and mounted 358 specimens of insects, the only aid given being that which was rendered by younger seeing children in catching specimens. One pupil, E. H., aged eighteen, analyzed and dissected plants and flowers, discovering all parts that could be seen without the aid of a microscope—by his sensitive finger tips.

This work was done by an enthusiastic teacher, whose excursions to the country and morning trips to the park were intellectually stimulating and recreative. Who can estimate the value of the knowledge so gained in correcting and removing inaccurate ideas of plant and bird life ?

This abundance of material so gained can be used to develop power of expression for the deaf, training him into easier use of the symbols of thought.

The nature work will cultivate for the blind, the exact judicial habit of thought, which he needs to substitute for his irregular emotional mental habits. The unsighted pupils can accomplish the prescribed amount of culture studies, history, literature, civics, ethics, in the same time as his sighted brother, but is physically barred from laboratory and microscopic

work which the deaf may perform, while the culture studies supply the deficiencies noted in the sympathetic, emotional nature of many of the deaf.

From the written work of the exhibit, we find that one class of eight furnished 307 absolutely perfect papers in language and history in eight months, not one dot of which is out of place. The accuracy and neatness here displayed count for much in the daily life of the pupils, who have probably themselves received the greater benefit from the exhibit than those who examine and admire.

From the pictorial exhibits we find the play life to be that of normal young people, as we see them playing games, giving physical culture drills, entertaining by programs of musical and literary efforts, and entering into all the regular pleasures of youthful life.

In the matter of trades taught for self-support, the great problems of after student life, the deaf outnumber the blind, as there are so few occupations which can be followed by the blind without the help of seeing people. The broom trade is one, and is especially adapted to the middle west where the corn is grown. Piano tuning is necessarily limited to those having a musical education. Musical talent, contrary to the popular idea, is not an invariable attendant of blindness.

In the courses of study, music, manual training, and art are offered to these two classes of pupils; the girl or boy without musical talent or talent for drawing or painting, may find his place for development in the manual training and will not be kept where progress is impossible and his special talents are not recognized. The girl who has not talent for music or other arts may find her greatest delight in domestic science and in mastering the problems of the kitchen and the table.

The teacher who leaves this exhibit without feeling that there are many avenues to reach the child and further his development, and that his individuality should be studied and conserved, has missed much of its lessons.

The instructor of the sighted child is helped by his study of these schools to determine what variation his pupil makes from imagination culture—whether logical and reflective studies, or those with social sympathetic basis, are required, and sets to work to remedy or remove the deficiency—and does not label the child stupid and consider him hopeless.

The subject of "Sight and Hearing in Relation to Education" was next treated of in a paper by Oscar Chrisman, Professor of Paidology, Ohio University, Athens, O.:

Perhaps the first examination of the sight of school children was made by Cohn, at Breslau, Germany, in 1865, and of the hearing of school children by Reichard, at Riga, Russia, in 1878. Since these there have been quite a large number of school children examined in regard to sight and hearing, and it has ever been found that a strong per cent. have defective sight and hearing, which greatly affects the work of the school. Nevertheless of such and of the importance of these two senses in education, it is surprising to learn how little is being done to ascertain the condition of these among school children. The committee which was appointed by this Department of Special Education for the purpose of ascertaining in regard to defective sight and hearing in their report to you of last year, 1903, state that a special circular of inquiry was sent out in this country to the superintendents of schools in cities of more than 25,000 inhabitants. "The circular was sent to 160 superintendents; 78 answers were received, and only in 19 cases were any statistics reported." From this

we are led to conclude that the number of schools in this country that are examining the sight and hearing of the children is very few. And yet every thinking man and woman today believes that there should be frequent physical examinations of school children and many hold that every school should have a medical examiner connected with it. Such is surely coming, and yet how slowly it comes ! Hearing this paper are people from different sections of this country; how many of you know of a single school where at least some kind of examinations or tests are not regularly held in the subjects taught, and do you know of a single school where examinations are regularly made of the ear, eye, nose, and throat of children and testings of sight and hearing ? Yet, really, which examinations are of most importance to the welfare of the child ?

The medical people are becoming active in this matter and are doing much to bring about this work. At the meeting of the American Medical Association at New Orleans i May, 1903, through the efforts of Dr. Frank Allport of Chicago, the following was adopted:

"WHEREAS, The value of perfect light and hearing is not fully appreciated bv educators, and neglect of the delicate organs of vision and hearing often leads to disease of these structures, therefore, be it

"*Resolved*, That it is the sense of the American Medical Association that measures be taken by boards of health, boards of education and school authorities, and where possible, legislation secured, looking to the examination of the eyes and ears of all school children, that disease in its incipiency may be discovered and corrected."

In reference to this resolution Dr. Allport wrote me under date of May 28, 1904: "This resolution has already been adopted by the Mississippi Valley Medical Association, and the State Medical Association of South Dakota, Michigan, Montana, Delaware, Minnesota, Colorado, New York, California, Alabama, Utah, Illinois, and Connecticut. The resolution has also been adopted by the American Public Health Association and the state and provincial Boards of Health of North America. The following State Boards of Health have passed the resolution and are taking steps to put the plan in operation in the fall: North Dakota, Rhode Island, Alabama, Illinois, Montana, New York, Indiana, Connecticut, Minnesota, Kansas, Colorado, and Ohio. The State Legislature of Connecticut has taken up the work and children are examined in that state under the state law. The resolution has also been passed by the State Boards of Education of Texas, Kansas, Minnesota, and Colorado."

Civilization is laying great burdens upon the eye and ear. In city life especially must the innumerable noises be very hard on the hearing apparatus of the young child, greatly affecting the delicate parts, and not only affecting the ear itself, but also the brain connections therewith. The eye is even more affected by the demands of civilization, for perhaps no other organ has had heaped upon it so many new things by advanced civilization as has the eye, and it has hardly been able to keep pace in its growth and power of adjustment with the growth of the demands. Whether or not civilization has brought on an increase of abnormalities of these two sense organs may never be fully known but no one can doubt that the increasing demands made upon them must have aggravated any original abnormalities and do so greatly with the child of today as to demand our careful consideration.

Just what number of children in any given school-room may have defective sight or hearing can only be ascertained by careful examination, but the teacher may be sure that there are several. The latest gathering of statistics has been by your committee, who find that returns from their inquiries show "that large numbers of children in the public schools are

handicapped in their progress through school by defective sight or hearing."

By the statistics gathered from various sources, it is well shown that a large number of school children have defective sight and hearing. Perhaps the best and most conclusive examinations of the sight and hearing of school children made in this country are those of the Chicago Child Study Laboratory. The results obtained in these examinations are in some ways different from those obtained elsewhere. As they are most carefully made, they must bear much weight and deserve our highest regard.

In his two articles on sight and hearing in the Journal of Adolescence, giving reports from the Chicago Child Study Laboratory, Prof. Krauskopf shows that upon first entrance to school at six years of age 32 per cent. of the children were found with defective sight and 26 per cent. with defective hearing. He shows that in the highest form of defective sight, 20-30 of normal vision or lower, and of defective hearing, 3 or more points below normal, that there is a very rapid increase in the per cent. of defectives till the highest point is reached, not far from the ninth year—before the ninth in hearing and after the ninth in sight—and then as rapid a decrease till the lowest point is reached, not far from the thirteenth year—before the thirteenth in hearing and after the thirteenth in sight—which goes lower than that upon entrance to school, then a slight rise takes place till at the close of the high school the per cent. of defectives is about the same as upon entrance to school. In the lower forms of defectives there is shown a difference in these two senses. In sight there is an increase from entrance upon school all the way through school life, while in hearing the lower forms show rise and fall as in the higher form, but at end of school life there is a higher per cent. than at beginning of school life.

The great fact brought out by these Chicago investigations is, the very rapid increase of defective sight and hearing in the early school years of the child and which culminates not far from the ninth year. This is a remarkable time in the life of the child, for other troubles show strongest about this year. At this time the brain has about reached its full weight and in its development is changing from increase in size to increase in function. This is also the time of the greatest fatigue in the life of the child, for near this year there is a sudden growth which is not shared in by the heart so that it does not keep pace in growth and the extra strain on it causes dilation and so great fatigue when exertion forces the heart to do more work than it can rightly accomplish. The maximum weight of the spleen in proportion to the body comes at this time, but just what that means is not determined. At this year, too, the child has yet about half of his temporary teeth remaining, most of which are in bad condition, thus preventing proper mastication and in fact keeping the child from eating sufficient amount of food because of pain from the bad teeth. All these conditions lower the general tone of the child's system, and with the adenoid and catarrhal growths and the various infectious diseases of childhood acting upon these two senses of sight and hearing so as to cause them to be in bad condition, which school work aggravates.

Whether the school greatly affects these two senses in older pupils may be a question, but there surely can be no question but that it does cause an increase of defects in the early school years. This is well shown in near-sightedness. Most young children are, perhaps, far-sighted, but strange to say, in their work they often bring objects near to them, so that they may be counted as normal or even near-sighted. With proper

care, it is held, such children could be saved from much near-sightedness, if not wholly from it. School work requires close application and this continued so affects the plastic eye as to change it and pass it through the normal stage and on to near-sightedness. It is held that the learning to read by the young child requires the same amount of eye-strain and exertion as the learning to use the microscope by the older people. If this is true it can be readily seen that the growing eye is greatly affected thereby, and some have been convinced by the study of such as to claim that reading, writing, and the like should not be begun by the child till he is at least ten years of age. Not only is the actual reading itself a heavy strain on the child, but also there goes with it the getting of the thought, keeping the place in the book, holding the book properly according to the teacher's views, and other requirements which worry the child and help to keep up the strain on him and so react on the sight. Not only may the child's defective vision cause him to take a position that the teacher may deem awkward, but even the position of the eyes in the head may make it imperative that he hold his head differently from others. Thus Stevens in the Popular Science Monthly (LIX, 390-401) shows that the long head has a low plane of vision and so holds the chin up and the head back, and the broad head has also a low plane of vision, but not quite so low as the high head and the head goes back, while the tall head has a high plane of vision and carries the forehead foreward, making the head turn down. Such positions are to lessen the strain on the eye muscles, because of need of elevation or lowering the eyes to get proper plane of vision.

The important part that sight and hearing take in education requires that the eye and ear be in good condition, and with children that are defective in these senses all should be done that would help them in their work. The eye is of special importance because of the great amount of work required of it and of its assistance to the hearing. We are scarcely aware of the great help the eye gives to the ear and especially that given in understanding spoken language through lip-reading. Without proper examination, teacher nor parent nor even the child himself may be aware of the defect, or at least not the extent of it. This is because such a child does not always show the same degree of defect and in hearing he usually turns the better hearing ear toward the one speaking and thus at times shows much better hearing than at others. Also the latent power in these senses is brought into play at moments of great interest, and so gives the child almost the appearance of normal hearing children. Again, the child is not aware of his defects and he considers that he has the usual sense power, that he is not different from other children, that all children see and hear as he does, and so he makes no complaint. This is well illustrated by the following from Krauskopf (Jo. Ad., I.; 198): "In testing some 300 graduates of the secondary schools of Chicago, a number of them were found suffering from marked defects of vision of which they were entirely unaware. Supposing that others had the same difficulties in seeing objects as themselves, they had finished the entire course of the city schools without realizing how seriously they had been handicapped."

Defective sight or hearing in children is quite hurtful to good school work. A child so afflicted fails to understand because he cannot see or hear properly and so loses interest and becomes indifferent. He then is designated as lazy or stupid by his teacher. He cannot do his work quickly and so must make slow progress till in the grammar grades many cases are found of children below grade, that is, children whose ages should place them in a higher grade than they are classed. In every in-

stance of investigation of sight or hearing, the dull, the lazy, the stupid children of a grade have been found to be in most cases of defective sight, or hearing, or both. Some investigators go so far as to claim that every dull child has defective sight, or hearing, or both. Krauskopf sums up the Chicago results thus (Jo. Ad. II, 105): "Chance plays but a minor part in pushing the pupil above grade, so that this group of advanced pupils are for the most part of exceptional ability; while many causes besides mental deficiency may tend to keep a child back in school and the group below grade will not consist entirely of dull pupils. Notwithstanding this, and in spite of the fact that hearing is only one of many factors that might affect the child's school standing, there is no point where those below grade are not on the average distinctly inferior to their more fortunate companions."

Such defects, too, have great influence upon the character of the child. His inability to see or to hear well causes him to lose interest and to become careless, and if punished by his teacher feels that he is wronged without knowing the true conditions, hence perhaps grows stubborn or morose, or worse yet, becomes filled with that feeling that all is against him and loses hope and so falls away too often into that number who become criminals or merely beings who exist, and so a good mind may be lost to the world, or even a good mind may be turned against the world. This is well shown in that the tests on the boys of the John Worthy School in Chicago, a school for truants and the like, showed these boys to have greater defects than the children of the public schools and even of those below grade.

We all believe, I am sure, that there should be stated and careful examinations made of the eye, the ear, the nose, and the throat of all school children, and tests of the sight and the hearing. Such ought really to be made by specialists and not left to teachers. Yet for the present we have not progressed sufficiently to feel the need of specialists here and so the teacher will have it to do if it is done, and the teacher may make the simple tests of sight and hearing, which will be of much help especially in knowing better about the dull, the backward, and the bad children. Dr. Allport has worked out plans whereby this can be carried on by teachers, and, as mentioned before, through his efforts it is being introduced into the schools of this country.

Where tests of sight and hearing have been made in schools, there usually follows a reseating of the children, so that those with defective sight or hearing are given seats more favorable to them for seeing and hearing and the parents are notified of the condition of their children. But simply seating the child in a more favorable locality only partially accomplishes the results needed. He should be carefully studied so that his condition may be well-known all the time, and he should be taught in such way as to give him every opportunity for growth and improvement, and this really can only be accomplished by specially trained teachers. Also the notifying of parents will not necessarily end in just the improvements needed, but the school authorities should work with the parents in this matter and should see that all is done for the child needed to be done. That parents may be well-meaning and yet fail to properly look after these needs, is seen when in tests made on sight of children, glasses worn by the children were frequently found to be of no use to them and indeed in many cases were really injurious, the parents having failed to have examinations made and glasses changed as frequently as needed.

Should the teacher be prevented from testing the sight and hearing, even by the simplest methods, because of prejudice on the part of the

parents and school authorities, he may learn much by quiet observation. He should from day to day take careful notice of his pupils, and especially so of all dull, vicious, and lazy ones. By careful daily noting of pupils, habits will be found which may lead to the ascertaining of the defects. Notice if the pupils are in the habit of keeping one side of the head usually turned to the one speaking or reciting, and if at times when this side is turned away, if the pupil comprehends so well and quickly as at other times, and also see if such pupils, when deeply interested in something being told, can withdraw their attention to something else as quickly as can the other pupils. Such pupils probably have defective hearing. Note if there is frequent wrinkling of the forehead as if frowning, throwing forward of the head and turning about to catch a better focus, holding work close to the eyes, if frequent headaches occur, and if in reading a child persists in mispronouncing words which it is sure he knows. Such may be from defective sight. In dictation exercises and copying of work from the board, if frequent mistakes are made, such are pretty sure to arise from defective sight and hearing. If a child has a dull, expressionless face, if he keep his mouth open, if his face is flat as though deformed, with almost an idiotic stare upon it, and if such a child is disturbed by bad dreams, snores at night, is addicted to nightly bed-wetting, such facts pretty well determine that the child is a sufferer from adenoid growths. Thus the teacher may find the defective children of a school-room, and yet it must be known that there are children whose defects can only be learned by careful tests by a specialist, and even in some cases the specialist may be unable to learn the extent of the defect.

Since the state provides the school buildings and appurtenances and then compels the child to attend the school, then the state should supply the child with means to keep up and improve his physical being and to prepare him and keep him in condition to do the work required of him by the school. Therefore, the state should carefully examine every child and see that he gets proper treatment for his defective sight and hearing, and that he is provided with whatever he may need to make it possible for him to see and to hear the work he is to do.

A very different classification of school children should be made than what is the custom now. Instead of wholly classifying on the basis of mental aptness, also should there be a classification according to physical capacity and condition. In sight and hearing the children should be carefully examined and classed according to the degree of these senses possessed by them, and frequent examinations should be made and frequent changes in classification, as children improve or become worse in these senses.

Teachers in the common schools have very much to learn from you teachers in special education. Teachers should be carefully trained to instruct children of different degrees of sight and hearing and to know how to help them to improve physically as well as mentally. The school of the future will be filled with experts, not only in subjects and methods, but also in knowledge of children. The children will be carefully studied and examined, and classified according to physical and mental conditions, and teachers specially trained will take charge of special children, just as at present in your special education you divide into the blind, the deaf-blind, the feeble-minded, and the like, and further divide these into classes and groups, and have specially trained teachers to take charge of the special classes.

The patience and close work in the training of feeble-minded chil-

dren should be used in the training of children in the common schools. As careful a study should be made of each normal child as is now made of each abnormal child. The physiological method of Seguin needs to be applied to the children in the common schools and especially to young children, and not until such is the case can our children receive such care and training as they need to properly develop their being.

Informal discussion of this paper followed, by Dr. D. P. McMillan, Director of Child Study Department of Chicago Public Schools, and Hon. R. C. Spencer, President of the Wisconsin Phonological Institute, Milwaukee, Wis.

The president appointed as a committee to nominate officers of the Department to be elected to serve the coming year, Mary P. Campbell, Percival Hall, and S. M. Green.

SECOND SESSION.—Friday, July 1, 1904.

The Department convened at 2.30 P. M., President J. W. Jones in the chair.

The first paper presented was the "Report of the Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children," prepared and read by the secretary of the Committee, Percival Hall, Professor of Applied Mathematics and Pedagogy, Gallaudet College, Washington, D. C. The following is the report in full:

ST. LOUIS, July 1, 1904.

To the President of the Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association:

Dear Sir: The Committee on Statistics of Defective Sight and Hearing of Public School Children, appointed by this Department of the National Educational Association at the summer meeting of 1902, made a most interesting report at the Boston meeting last summer, giving statistics which were collected for the committee through the Bureau of Education.[1]

It was found that out of 34,426 pupils examined in six cities, 13.4 per cent. were seriously defective in sight, and out of 57,072 pupils examined in seven cities, 3.6 per cent. were seriously defective in hearing.

These percentages, obtained from a comparatively small number of pupils, and varying greatly, as the report showed, in different cities, cannot be taken for a definite basis for computing the number of such defective children in the whole country; but they certainly point out most plainly a state of affairs which calls for uniform and methodical exami-

[1]Proceedings N. E. A. for 1903; full report with valuable Appendix published in the advance sheets of the report of the Commissioner of Education for 1902, Chapter 46.

nation with the view of alleviating present troubles, of finding out the causes of the defects discovered, and of checking them, if possible, in the future.

The report of last year's committee was accepted, and the committee was enlarged and continued, with the suggestion that methods of testing the sight and hearing of school children should be investigated.

The present committee, before beginning active work, endeavored to obtain the assistance of the Bureau of Education in sending out queries and gathering further statistics; but, on account of the great pressure of work at the Bureau because of preparation of the great exhibits for the exposition, the Commissioner of Education felt unable to offer the assistance sought.

The idea of testing the sight and hearing of school children is by no means a new one. In some cities, such as Worcester and Chicago, much systematic work of this kind has been going on for years, but from the statistics gathered last year it was clear that in a great many cities nothing was being done. Therefore the committee, to stir up interest in the work, sent out the full report of last year's committee to superintendents of public schools in about 125 of the largest cities of the United States.

It was decided that the committee itself, by experimenting for a short time with various tests, would not be able to obtain results of any value compared with those already obtained in several places where different kinds of systematic tests of the sight and hearing of thousands of school children have been carried on. Therefore the following set of questions was sent out to the superintendents of schools of every city of the United States of 30,000, or over, inhabitants.

1. What method or device is used to test the sight of the pupils of the ..... public schools ?

2. What method or device is used to test the hearing of the pupils of the ..... public schools ?

3. By whom (whether by specialists or by the teachers of the pupils examined) are the tests made ?

4. In case preliminary tests are made by teachers, are the pupils found defective then tested by specialists ?

5. Are the kindergarten children, or children unable to read, tested to determine defects of sight, and if so, what device is used ?

6. Do you consider the watch test a proper and sufficient one to be used by the teacher to determine defective hearing ?

7. Have you ever used methods other than those given above, of testing sight and hearing ? If so, why did you change ?

8. What are the main causes of defective sight among your school children ?

9. What are the main causes of defective hearing among your school children ?

These questions were sent out to 135 cities, and 55 replies were received. In 28 of these cities formal tests of the sight of children able to read are made periodically; in 9 others informal tests were made by hearing the children read, by using charts, and by general observation.

In 20 cities formal tests of hearing are made at regular intervals; and in 12 cities informal tests are carried out by means of conversation, reading and general observation.

In only 9 of the 55 cities replying are the kindergarten children, or those unable to read, tested for defective sight.

Snellen's standard test types are employed in nearly all cases for testing sight. It has been pointed out by several authorities that this test is not sufficient for detecting "far-sightedness," neither is it a test for color blindness and some other defects of vision, and in a few cities additional devices are employed to make the test more complete. However, the tests by means of Snellen's types, simple color tests, and observation on the part of the teacher as to the causes of headaches among the pupils have, in several cities, led to the detection of nearly all cases of defective vision.

Testing the sight of kindergarten children, or those unable to read, is successfully accomplished in Chicago and other cities by means of the illiterate, or "E" test,which consists of placing an E in different positions,

at fixed distances and requiring the child to place an E in the same positions. Naming familiar objects at fixed distances, and recognizing or reproducing simple geometrical forms from given distances are other tests that are employed with young children.

A majority of the replies to the committee's questions shows that testing the hearing by means of a watch is not satisfactory. In Chicago the watch is supplemented by the use of the voice, a "clicker," and the audiometer. In Worcester the ordinary voice is used. In all cases where defects are suspected, it is clear that the teacher's observations must count as a part of the test.

The causes of defective vision reported are numerous. It is of much interest to note that only one reply gives bad lighting of school rooms as a cause. Lack of proper ventilation, lack of out-door life, bad postures in sitting, the habit of holding books too near the eyes, poor print, and the constant use of the eyes, are all given as causes, every one of which probably all teachers are aware of, but they are noted here because the removal of these causes lies largely with the teachers and principals of the schools.

The causes of deafness as given show little connection with schoolroom life, and their prevention lies rather in the hands of parents and physicians.

A fact worth attention is that the state of Connecticut requires tests of the eyesight of school children every three years by means of Snellen's test types.

In the cities of Yonkers, Jersey City, and Philadelphia regular medical inspectors or specialists test the sight and hearing of all the school children. In New York and Boston, while every child is not tested, all backward children are given a thorough examination by specialists. In Chicago a regular child study department is maintained, the head of which has charge of the work of testing the sight and hearing of the children.

At the last meeting of the American Medical Association the following recommendation was passed:

Resolved, That it is advised by the American Medical Association that measures be taken by the various school authorities and boards of education, boards of health, and if possible, state legislators, to secure examinations of the eyes and ears of all school children in this country, with a view to suitable treatment for the relief of ophthalmologic and otologic imperfections."

In conclusion the committee reports that it believes periodical tests of the sight and hearing of all school children, including those in the kindergartens, should be made in every city of the United States in order to discover cases of defective vision and hearing.

It believes that these tests should be conducted where possible by regular medical inspectors or specialists, but that they may be conducted satisfactorily by the teachers, if they themselves are first instructed by a specialist.

It believes that the parents of all children who are thus found defective should be notified, and the child, if examined first by a teacher, should be sent to a specialist. As many of the defects of sight are directly caused by school life, it does not seem proper to leave the matter to the authority of parents alone.

The committee believes that to secure uniformity, Snellen's test types should be used as a part of the test of sight, and the ordiary voice, as used in the tests in the city of Worcester, should be employed in the examination for defective hearing.

The committee believes that these statistics should be collected at regular intervals; that it is not likely it will be done by the Bureau of Education; that the National Educational Association might do it through a permanent committee; but it points out that there is no provision of funds to carry out such a work.

Finally, the committee urges that the *causes* of defective sight and hearing should be investigated, with a view to educating children, parents, and teachers on the subject, and thus preventing, as far as possible, such defects among our school children.

	Number of cities.	By whom conducted.		Defective children.		Test used.	Test for kindergarten.
		Principal or Teacher.	Specialist	Referred to specialist	Sent to specialist		
SIGHT, Informal tests.	9	9	0	2	1	Observation; reading print at various distances.	
Formal tests.	28	25	3	17	7	For "near-sightedness," 24 use Snellen's test types; for "far-sightedness," teachers depend on observation. 3 report tests for color blindness.	4 use "E" or illiterate test; 1 uses pictures of familiar objects; 3 depend on observation and testing by simple geometrical figures. 1 uses intersecting line test.
HEARING, Informal tests.	12	12	0	1	2		
Formal tests.	20	17	3	7	5	Test used: 14 cities use the watch test; 6 use the voice; other supplementary tests are by means of a "clicker," tuning fork, and audiometer. On the question, "Is the watch test satisfactory?" 10 reported "No," 4 reported "Yes."	

The figures all refer to number of cities. Total number replying, 55.

Reported causes of defects of sight: Astigmatism[1], hypermetropia[1], myopia[1], acute inflammation[1], bad furniture, bad posture at desk, congenital causes, constant use of eyes, defective light at home, holding books too near eyes, lack of out-door exercise, poor food, poor print, poor ventilation of school-rooms, neglect of parents and teachers.

Reported causes of defects of hearing: Adenoid growths, catarrh, congenital causes, falls, measles, neglect of parents, scarlet fever.

F. W. Booth,
O. H. Burritt,
F. Parke Lewis,
Clarence J. Blake,
Percival Hall,
} Committee.

APPENDIX.

A.

Cities in which regular tests of the sight of school children are made:

Atlanta, Bridgeport, Cambridge, Camden, Chicago, Cleveland, Denver, Duluth, Elmira, Grand Rapids, Jersey City, Little Rock, Lowell, Milwaukee, New Haven, New Orleans, Philadelphia, Rockford, Saginaw, San Antonio, Somerville, Superior, Trenton, Utica, Waterbury, Williamsport, Worcester, Yonkers.

Cities in which regular tests of the hearing of school children are made:

Atlanta, Cambridge, Camden, Chicago, Cleveland, Denver, Duluth, Grand Rapids, Little Rock, Jersey City, Lowell, New Haven, Philadelphia, Rockford, Saginaw, Superior, Trenton, Utica, Worcester, Yonkers.

Cities in which kindergarten children are tested for defective eyesight:

Camden, Chicago, Cleveland, Duluth, Lowell (in some of the schools), Philadelphia, Trenton, Utica, Yonkers.

Any one desirous of obtaining detailed information as to how tests are carried on in these cities will find such interesting matter in the report of last year's committee. School superintendents are also usually very glad to supply all the information they can.

B.

Examples of notices sent to parents when children have been found defective in sight or hearing:

Duluth Public Schools.

Office of ..... School.

Mr. and Mrs. .....

By request of the Board of Education, your child, with many others, has been examined by Drs. Titcomb and Collins for eye, ear, nose, and throat trouble.

As a result of this examination ..... is found to have sufficient trouble with the ..... to not only compel ..... to work

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[1]These are, of course, the defects themselves, but were reported as causes.

at a great disadvantage, but is also a menace to the child's best development and may be a cause of ill health.

The Board of Education herewith urge you to have this matter attended to by some competent physician or specialist, believing it will result greatly to the benefit of your child.

Yours respectfully.

.....Principal.

Worcester, Mass.,....., 190

.....

By vote of the School Committee the Superintendent of Schools has been authorized to have tests made annually of the sight and hearing of all pupils in the schools. This is done by the principal of each school under the direction of competent physicians.

The sight of ..... has been found below the standard deemed necessary for the proper execution of school work. It is advisable that you consult a physician (not an optician). Trusting that you will co-operate by having an examination made at once, I remain,

Yours truly,

.....

.....School.

By order of the School Committee.

C.

Superintendent F. H. Beede, of New Haven, reports in regard to the law of Connecticut:

"I would say that the law relative to the testing of the eyesight of school children in this state is very simple. The state law requires that the eyesight of pupils in all schools of the state shall be examined triennially according to the instructions furnished by the State Board of Education. These instructions are not elaborate. The regular card used for testing the eyesight by physicians is used for this purpose in the schools. Teachers are required by law to notify in writing the parent or guardian of every pupil whose eyes are found to be defective or diseased. The teacher must also make a written report of such cases to the State Board of Education.

"There is no law in this state requiring the testing of the hearing of school children."

D.

Dr. James B. Fitzgerald, director of physical training in the Boston Public schools, reports through Superintendent Edwin P. Seaver:

"There is no regular examination of the eyes and ears in the Boston Schools. This course was decided upon after consulting some of the most eminent specialists in the city. No examination is made until the child shows some definite symptoms. When this happens the teacher reports the case to the parents in a formal way and urges that examination be made by a specialist. Usually this is done; but when it is not done, the responsibility is with the parents, where in our opinion it belongs.

"Our teachers are taught the common symptoms of defective sight and hearing, and in my opinion the system works well.

"We *do*, however, have the eyes and ears of backward children examined occasionally by specialists."

Dr. Ellis G. Brown, of the Board of Education, New York City, reports:

"The plan for examining all defectives in the New York City public schools is as follows:

"Children who have difficulty for keeping up with their classes for any reason are reported to headquarters (Board of Education). Being in charge of work for defectives, I visit the different schools and examine all children reported. As yet no attempt is made to examine children who keep up with their classes.

"My examination is into mental condition, as well as physical condition of the children, to see, if possible, what it is that holds them back. In many cases it is pure mental deficiency. In other cases it is defective sight or hearing. The test I make for sight and hearing is simple and practical—simply to determine whether sight or hearing is defective enough to prevent usual progress in the school grades.

"Examination is made as follows:

"Child is required to stand across the room and, one eye covered, tested as to ability to tell how many fingers I hold up. Astigmatism is not tested for unless headaches or some other symptom is complained of by the pupil, or unless the teacher gives a report indicating to me the probability of astigmatism.

"Special classes or special treatment is advised where indicated.

"Children who may have slightly defective eyesight or hearing, but who keep up in grade, are not examined. This step has not yet been reached."

E.

WORCESTER PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Eye and ear examinations.

(From instructions for examinations.)

Do not expose the card except when in use, as familiarity with its face leads children to learn the letters "by heart."

First grade and kindergarten children need not be examined.

The examination should be made privately and singly, in a room or hall well lighted and as quiet as possible, apart from the general school session. Eyes and ears should be tested at the same sitting.

Ascertain if the pupil habitually suffers from inflamed lids or eyes.

Children already wearing glasses should be tested with such glasses properly adjusted on the face.

Place a card of Snellen's test types on the wall in a good light; do not allow the face of the card to be covered by glass.

The line marked XX (20) should be seen at twenty feet, therefore place the pupil twenty feet from the card.

Each eye should be examined separately.

Hold a card over one eye while the other is being examined. Do not press upon the covered eye, as the pressure might induce an incorrect examination.

Have the pupil begin at the top of the test card, and read aloud down as far as he can, first with one eye and then with the other.

If the pupil does not habitually suffer with inflamed lids or eyes, and can read a *majority* of the XX (20) test type *with each* eye and does not upon inquiry, complain of *habitually* tired and painful eyes or headaches after study, his eyes may be considered satisfactory, but if he habitually suffers from inflamed lids or eyes, or cannot read a *majority* of the XX (20) test type with *both* eyes, or *habitually* complains of tired

and painful eyes or headache after study, a card of information should be sent to parent or guardian.

To examine for defective hearing, test each ear separately. Have pupil stand twenty feet distant, facing squarely to right or left, not allowing eyes to turn toward examiner, have pupil gently press a soft handkerchief to the ear turned away from examiner, and then whisper, slowly and distinctly, or pronounce in an ordinary conversational voice, words or numbers, requiring the pupil to repeat them as soon as heard. If the words are not heard at twenty feet, approach pupil until they are heard, and note the distance, and record in the blanks furnished for the purpose. If found defective, a card of information should be sent to parent or guardian.

The next paper was on the subject, "The Chicago Hospital School for Nervous and Delicate Children—its Educational and Scientific Methods," by Miss Mary R. Campbell, Secretary of the Board of Trustees. This was a most excellent paper, but as the manuscript is not in hand, it can not be given here.

An address next followed upon "The Teacher and the Defective Child," by Dr. M. A. Goldstein, editor of the Laryngoscope, St. Louis. The address, not written, was accompanied by a demonstration with deaf children showing results attained by auricular training. Dr. Goldstein also made a demonstration of the Hutchinson instruments which are being shown on the Exposition grounds. It can not be said that the demonstration was particularly successful, as the machine got out of order in carrying it over to Assembly Hall.

The following were elected officers of the Department for the ensuing year: President, Miss Margaret Bancroft, Head of the Haddonfield, N. J., Training School; Vice-President, Mr. J. H. Freeman, Superintendent of the Illinois School for the Blind, Jacksonville, Ill.; Secretary, Miss Anna E. Schaffer, State Supervisor of Schools for the Deaf, Madison, Wis.

The programme having been completed, upon motion the meeting adjourned.

The social feature of the St. Louis meeting of the Department was a reception given to the members at the Illinois building by the Chicago Oral Teachers' Club, on Friday evening, July 1st. A pleasing musical and literary programme was presented, a part of which was a play in one act, rendered by pupils of the McCowen Oral School for Young Deaf Children.

ELIZABETH VAN ADESTINE, *Secretary.*

HELEN KELLER AT RADCLIFFE COLLEGE.[1]

In June last Miss Helen Keller, having completed the full course at Radcliffe College and passed her examinations, graduated as a member of the class with which she entered four years ago and received the degree of Bachelor of Arts *cum laude.* Among those who attended the commencement to participate and rejoice in her final triumph over the difficulties with which she has so bravely contended were Hon. John Hitz of the Volta Bureau, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet of Gallaudet College, and Mr. Weston Jenkins of the Talladega, Alabama, School. Miss Keller took no active part in the exercises beyond appearing for her degree. The reading of essays was optional, and she, in common with some others of the best scholars presented none. Nevertheless, she was the centre of interest to the large and cultured audience that graced the occasion and an indirect reference to her and Miss Sullivan in the address of the President called forth a noticeable burst of applause. At the presentation of degrees, from the moment they commenced the ascent to the platform and while they were passing across and out a side door at the farther end, the two were the recipients of a continuous ovation.

The event, besides being widely commented upon by the press of the country, was commemorated in a number of special articles by writers of note which review the work she did in College and discuss her acquirements and limitations. The best of these is by John Albert Macy, associate editor of the Youth's Companion, and appeared in the June 2nd issue of that periodical. It is so complete in its details and speaks with such evident

[1]The author of this article is doubly qualified to write of Miss Keller's college work; for not only is he a friend of Miss Keller and editor of the supplement of her autobiography, but also he has been an instructor in Harvard and Radcliffe, and understands Miss Keller's work from the academic point of view. Miss Keller's speech to the Radcliffe alumnæ, which is quoted at the end of the article, has not appeared in print before.—EDITOR OF YOUTH'S COMPANION.

knowledge and authority that we are constrained to reprint it in full—which we do with the permission of the Youth's Companion publishers—as a final contribution to this chapter of Miss Keller's life:

In June, on commencement day at Radcliffe College, Helen Keller receives with the class of 1904 the degree of Bachelor of Arts. When it was announced four years ago that a girl who has been deaf and dumb since the age of nineteen months had passed the entrance examinations the world was amazed, and half the world disbelieved. The beginning was incredible. The end, still more incredible, will have been achieved by the time this article is printed.

Thousands have attained the goal of a college education; no other has borne so great a burden on the way, and few have gone the way with her unfaltering bravery. Her victory has been won in the silent dark.

To Helen Keller's ears the poetry of our race has never come in audible rhythms, yet she has read Shakespeare, Milton, Wordsworth, Keats and Shelly, Browning and Tennyson, Goethe and Hugo. Lacking two senses, she has studied with such intelligence as has been commended by her instructors those problems of the relation between the senses and the mind which we call philosophy. She has learned the first principles of government and economics. In Latin she has pursued her path through works by Terence, Plautus, Horace, Tacitus, Cicero, Catullus and Lucretius. She has studied her Bible, and has shown by what she writes that into her being have entered its mighty phrases and its consolations.

No special concession has been made on account of the difficulties of her case; Miss Keller wins her degree in regular course like her classmates. Moreover, she receives her degree *cum laude* (with praise). This means that in every course she has done creditable work, and that in the majority of her courses she has received a grade of distinction. As an additional "decoration," her diploma will bear the words, in Latin: "Not only

approved in the whole academic course, but excellent in English Letters."

Fortunately for the self-respect of those who see and hear, Miss Keller does not stand at the head of her class. Perhaps she would not stand there if she had sight and hearing. But judged as we judge normal students, her record is excellent; and viewed as the attainment of one who is deaf and blind, that record represents an achievement lofty and solitary among the deeds of men and women.

Miss Keller's work in college is rated as seventeen and a half courses, the number required of a candidate for the degree of Bachelor of Arts. A course consists of three lectures or recitations a week for one school year.

The records of the college credit Miss Keller with two courses in French, one in German, two in English composition, a half-course in Milton, three courses in Latin, one in government, one in economics, one in the history of Medieval Europe, two in Shakespeare, one in Elizabethan literature, one in the English Bible, one in English literature of the nineteenth century, and one in the history of philosophy.

Of the courses offered by the college, some are impossible for any blind person; still others are impossible for her who is deaf and blind. Miss Keller's work includes no independent research, no fine arts, music, drawing, chemistry, botany, zoölogy, geology, astronomy, physics, or any other subject which involves the use of instruments and physical specimens. No mathematics appears in her curriculum, although Miss Keller passed the admission requirements in algebra and geometry, and might, if she liked, go far into pure mathematics. Literature, history and philosophy she can pursue to still distant goals.

The restrictions imposed by deafness and blindness, and not to be overborne even by an unconquerable soul, are evident to any one who has done work in the laboratory, in the field, in the observatory. It is evident also that independent research which entails a quest through many books can be achieved by a blind person only at great labor with the help of one who sees, and by a deaf-blind person only at incalculable cost of time and strength, at the sacrifice of more accessible and valuable things,

and only by the help of such constant work on the part of another, as even her teacher, Miss Sullivan, could hardly find time to accomplish.

These limitations mark the boundary of the regions in which Miss Keller may work. Within those regions are obstacles which only she and Miss Sullivan have known how to overcome.

The work of the normal student consists in listening to discourse and in reading books. He takes in at his ears the stream of information that comes forth from the lips of the instructors, while his hand is busily inscribing in a note-book the main points of the lecture. This stream of information came to the deaf-blind student through her fingers, into which Miss Sullivan spelled the words almost as fast as they were spoken.

But there was no means of taking notes. After the lectures for the day Miss Keller made notes from memory on her braille machine. In its way this was excellent training. But it took long and often delayed the preparation for the next day far into the evening. Moreover, much that an instructor says must be jotted down at once or it slips away; and with all Miss Sullivan's altertness and Miss Keller's ability to catch the words from her teacher's fingers, many things were spilled in the swift passage of the lecture from hand to hand.

A word dropped out sometimes confused the sense beyond repair; and except for the note-book of a fellow student and the slight assistance offered by one or two instructors, Miss Keller was often left to prepare for examinations with little to depend on but her memory, no way to recover what her fingers had lost.

In some courses, where the class was using a book, Miss Keller had to follow with one hand the text in the big volume on her knees, and with the other hand take the manual dictation of the instructor's comments.

The work of preparation out of class was long and hard. Few books of use to a student are printed in the raised braille characters which the blind read. Many books were especially made for Miss Keller, but by no means all. Only in her last year were all the books she used written in braille. The work was done by blind people and others all over the world, and paid for by friends. Let us remember that Helen Keller's success is due

in considerable part to friends like Mr. William Wade, who gives I know not how much of his time and his fortune to the deaf-blind. For one course alone, English literature of the nineteenth century Mr. Wade ordered for Miss Keller books which fill a large case and which it took a dozen people months to transcribe.

Compared, however, with the equipment of books in ink-print, accessible to the student who sees or who can hear others read aloud, Miss Keller's library is very slender. A person with sight, reading a French text, has at hand a dictionary, a grammar, the text to be read, and usually notes to the text. Miss Keller never had a French or a German or a Greek lexicon in raised print, and often her texts were not accompanied by the notes. These Miss Sullivan had to read to her, and she also looked up in the lexicons the words for which her pupil called. Miss Keller thus depended largely on the text before her, and wrested from that the meanings of the words and the syntax.

This way of learning a language has the advantage of forcing a student to rely little on lexicons and books of grammar. But it is a difficult and long way to prepare a day's lesson.

Miss Keller has not been on equal terms with other students in subjects where her equipment is relatively complete. An example is Latin, in which she owns a dictionary, a grammar, the texts required—some of them imperfectly transcribed in braille—and some of the notes.

Imagine her studying a lesson in Latin. Sitting with her big books about her, she runs her fingers over a passage of the text, translates and examines it as well as she can. Then she hunts in a separate book for the editor's notes, if they are in braille, or asks Miss Sullivan to look them up.

Now her hands seek one of the three volumes of her Latin dictionary, which, for all its bulk, is only an abridged vocabulary; and so back again to the text. Surely a slow process and wearisome.

Other courses show other difficulties. The course in history required a hundred and fifty pages a week of collateral reading in chronicle and biography. Miss Sullivan spelled the books to her pupil word for word, or made those judicious selections and summaries which have proved her a masterly tutor.

The course in economics was based on Mill's "Principles" and other books, none of which was in raised type. The subject was new to Miss Keller and to Miss Sullivan. Since there was not time to spell out all the reading in Mill, Miss Sullivan read the chapters in advance, condensing and selecting essential ideas for Miss Keller. Not only Helen Keller's early education, but her later studies, would have been impossible without Miss Sullivan, who, in all matters outside of the college work and in some matters relating to it, has been Helen Keller's best teacher.

There are two examinations in a course, each three hours long, one in February, one in June. Miss Keller has already explained in her "Story of My Life" that she wrote her examinations in a room by herself. No one was present but the dean of the college and a teacher of the blind, whom the college employed especially for Miss Keller's examinations. This teacher, Miss Spooner, transcribed the printed examination-paper into braille and handed the braille sheets to Miss Keller. Then for three hours no one spoke to her.

A frequent difficulty was that it took time for Miss Spooner to put a long examination-paper into braille, and Miss Keller had often written far into the allotted three hours before she knew what questions remained for her to answer. The ordinary student reads his whole paper through at the outset, so that he may apportion his time wisely.

On one final examination-paper the first question bore on subject-matter not included in the course. Through a mistake for which no one was to blame, the announcement of the instructor that the question was to be omitted was not conveyed to Miss Keller. So she grappled with the question and did her best. From this bad beginning the rest of her paper suffered.

The incident is characteristic. Miss Sullivan chided her pupil afterward for not having judgment enough to omit the question. Deaf people in isolation from life usually lack what we call common sense, and the most valuable part of Miss Sullivan's instruction is to teach Miss Keller judgment, to make her as worldly-wise as we are, but not so worldly-foolish. Any other student would have omitted the question without being told. Nevertheless, one feels like cheering the spirit which attacks

every problem set before it and lays out its full strength to win if not mastery, a stubborn defeat.

That is Miss Keller's spirit. A woman who at twenty-four has done the impossible must suspect the meaning of the word, and must assume, in spite of genuine modesty, the unvanquishable attitude. If one may hint at a grain of fault in Helen Keller's beautiful nature, it is that she does not know when she is beaten.

Sometimes the trait is pathetic, sometimes it is youthful and amusing; always it is part of the indomitable will to succeed, the unflinching bravery of a spirit which recognizes not its own overthrow.

The course in Engish composition revealed to her instructors that Miss Keller was the best writer of English who in their time of service had come as a freshman to Harvard or Radcliffe. After a month or two of work, some experiences which brought grief and anxiety thwarted the flow of ideas, and the themes were discontinued until the next year. Then Miss Keller was persuaded to write her book. The autobiography which she prepared for publication was accepted in manuscript as work for the course in composition. The quality of that work all the world knows.

The excellence of Miss Keller's English shows in her other college work, in reports and theses. Some of her translations of Latin into English are done, to quote one of her instructors, "as well as English prose will do it." Her style is an expression of her inward culture, for her spoken words are pure English, and free from the slangy idioms of our day.

Mere culture, however, does not make melodious connected prose. That is attained only by labor. Labor is the content of Miss Keller's genius, the secret of her advancement. Not a good paragraph which she has written, even in a private letter, has been "dashed off." Although she is lively and bright in conversation, yet when her mind settles to the business of writing it does not work rapidly. She writes well, not by virtue of a facile gift, but by scrupulous revision, patient thinking, and diligent attention to the criticisms of her instructors and to the advice of Miss Sullivan.

It is not necessary to examine in detail Miss Keller's work in all the courses she took in college.

On one examination-paper in government her instructor wrote, "Shows a thorough understanding of the subject." Some other papers were equally successful; some were not. A singular course for her to succeed in was that in the history of philosophy, in which she showed that she could grasp the fundamental metaphysical ideas. To this course is due part of the material of her essay, "Optimism."

Her life in college has had its social pleasures and duties. Her classmates elected her vice-president and chose her for "lawyer," one of the class-day officers.

The college work has been by no means the only activity in Miss Keller's busy four years. Twice she has made speeches at the opening of new buildings devoted to the deaf or the blind. She has delivered two addresses in behalf of the adult blind of Massachusetts, who have been sorely neglected, but who, since Miss Keller's last appeal, can be neglected no more forever. Besides her two books, she has writen short articles, one of which was her message in the Easter number of The Companion. In the midst of all this she has written many letters, in reply to a small part of the countless letters she receives.

Such is the work accomplished by Helen Keller and by Miss Sullivan, whose hand has always guided. She has turned to the uses of her pupil the streams that nourish and delight, and has turned aside the streams that bear no good. Miss Keller's part in the achievement is the reward of bravery and endless application to her task. She has been too often represented as a person of profound sapience and brilliant genius. She is not quite that; she is not even scholarly in her interests. Her mind is stout and energetic, of solid endurance. Many women have keener minds and deeper capacity for scholarship. I, for one, cannot see that she has the intellect of a genius, or much creative power, or great originality. But her heart is noble; the world has yet to show a finer spirit, a loftier and more steadfast will to do the best.

She is distinguished not only among the deaf-blind, who are numbered by the score, but among the deaf, of whom there are

thousands. Not another person, deaf from childhood, has matched her achievement. The result of her work is to set a new standard for the deaf, and to raise a standard, high if not new, for the whole world of men who work and pray. She has moved the hearts of all nations to an enduring sympathy for the afflicted and to a new belief in the capacity of the blind and the deaf to be uplifted. Thereby is Helen Keller's service great unto those who see and those who are blind, to those who hear and those whose ears hear not.

Her work, it is safe to predict, will go further than the goal which is marked by her graduation. To herself she seems to have done little enough and to be hopefully at the beginning of real service. At a meeting of Radcliffe alumnæ in December she said:

"I have been asked to tell you something about my college life. I fear me there is little in it that will interest you, for it is pressed between the covers of books. You will not misunderstand me if I say that much of my life in college has been tedious. Slowness was unavoidable in the manual labor of Miss Sullivan's task and mine. . . .

"So my pleasures in what we call college life have been necessarily few. But they are all the keener for that reason. I enjoy the chats with the girls and the stimulating experience of sitting under different instructors, some of whom have been very kind to me. I like, too the little feeling of competition with others and the wee gossips that seem too trivial to record soberly as one of the pleasures of a senior, but which we all know are a large part of college life.

"In study I have fallen heir to no end of interest and delight. How eagerly I look forward to a new book! It binds my life closer to that of the world. As I read, there is a sound in my ears—it is the voice of fancy; there is a light before me—it is the radiance of poetry. This year I have taken up my Latin again, and I am reading the comedies of Plautus with growing pleasure.

"I am studying English literature of the nineteenth century. The essayists are delightful. Lamb, Hazlitt and Hunt knew how to present their ideas with lightness, delicacy and grace, and point out new beauties in the every-day world.

"College has breathed new life into my mind and given me new views of things, a perception of new truths and new aspects of the old ones. I grow stronger in my conviction that there is nothing good or right which we cannot accomplish if we have the will to strive. The assured reality and nearness of the end of my school-days fills me with bright anticipations. The doors of the great world are flung open before me and a light shines upon me, the light kindled by the thought that there is something for me to do beyond the threshold.

"And indeed, for all earnest college graduates there is a great work in the world—work that can be done in sweet, unaggressive ways. There are harsh customs to be made sweet with love, hearts in which a kind, tolerant brotherly love must be awakened; time-hallowed prejudices that must be overthrown. One evil that must be checked is the ignorance of the learned who have never learned the simple, honest language of the heart, which is the most vital of all languages, and is more satisfying than all the Greek and Latin ever written. Thus I have groped my way through college, reaching out on the dark pathway for wisdom, for friendship and for work. I have found much work and abundant friendship and a little wisdom, and I ask for no other blessedness."

DEAF CHILDREN IN VACATION SCHOOLS IN PHILADELPHIA.

[The following very interesting account of the work done in the Vacation Schools of Philadelphia, during the summer of 1903, for the deaf children who had been taken into them as pupils, is a report made to the Civic Club by the chairman of its Committee on Vacation Schools, Miss Jane Hubbard of Germantown. These Vacation Schools, under the direction of and maintained by the Board of Education, have been in operation during the past seven summers, and the Civic Club has interested itself in them and their work from the start, Miss Hubbard herself being especially interested in the deaf children attending them and in the work that they have been able to accomplish in association with hearing children in the same classes. We cannot conceive how work more valuable or practical could be undertaken for our deaf children in the large cities during the summer vacation months, and we wish all engaged in it a hearty God speed.

We regret to learn that Miss Hubbard, to whose efforts and interest so much is due for the earlier success of this important experiment of introducing deaf children into Vacation Schools with hearing children, died during the past winter. However, the work itself continues, and we understand will continue in coming summers a regular feature of the Vacation Schools of the city.—EDITOR REVIEW.]

It may be worth while to tell the story of the deaf children in the Philadelphia vacation schools, as there are so many in our land who are interested either in vacation school work or in the training of the deaf.

On the 6th of July, 1903, the Philadelphia Board of Education opened eight Vacation Schools, where the average attendance was 3400.

"As in previous years," to quote from the report of the supervisor, Miss Crawford, "the children longed to remain in school, taking no note of time; and the teachers in many in-

stances were willing, at the solicitation of the pupils, to stay the entire day. In many districts the school was the only comfortable place for the children, and the teachers were too kind-hearted to close the buildings during the afternoon. A little Italian boy, whose father was trying to place him in the House of Refuge, was brought into the Forten School by a probation officer of the Juvenile Court, and the boy became so fascinated with the basket and hammock making that he forgot to be bad."

Concerning the South-West Vacation School, Miss Crosby, the principal, reported: "It is now an important factor in the neighborhood. An influence for good has gone out from it which has been felt in many a home. 'You ought to have been at our house last night,' said one father, ' to see my girl and her mother having their heads together over something that had been taught by the cooking teacher in the morning. There isn't a thing that goes on in that room that the two of them don't go over at night. My wife is just as anxious as the girl and has learned a number of things from her. We are proud of the lass.' One mother who visited the school said, 'What splendid things these vacation schools are! My three boys have not given me a speck of trouble all this summer. I used to dread a rainy day, but since the boys have learned to work with raffia we just go into a room by ourselves, I with my sewing, the boys with the raffia I bought them, and we have a regular sewing bee. They are no trouble at all now, and you would be surprised to see the number of pretty things they made.' "

To many the most interesting part of the work last summer was the experiment successfully made of admitting deaf children to be taught in the classes with and like the hearing pupils. Of the eight Philadelphia vacation schools, only one held no deaf child, four schools admitted each one deaf pupil, two schools admitted two deaf pupils, one school admitted seven pupils; making a total of fifteen, of whom thirteen remained to the close of the school term.

Concerning these, the supervisor, Miss Crawford, says: "They were allowed to mingle with the other children and received the same instruction. This was an excellent preparation for their future life when it will be an absolute necessity for them

to mingle with all classes of people. Most of these deaf children attend the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf at Mt. Airy during the winter months, but as that institution is closed in the summer, they welcomed gladly the opportunity to attend the vacation schools. The teachers were unanimous in saying that any attention shown these pupils was amply repaid in the results attained and the gratitude and affection exhibited."

These children had all been taught to read the lips, that is, to understand things said to them by carefully watching the face and lips of the speaker. To illustrate, let me tell of visiting the room of Miss Kilpatrick's school, where Miss Mowbray had charge of a large class and in it two deaf boys. These two sat directly in front of her, where they could best watch her lips. Turning her back to them, she quickly told of their brightness, her interest in them, and desire to keep their deafness in the background. "In fact," she added, "I don't think the other boys know they are deaf." As she again faced the children, I saw how intently the eyes of these boys watched every word she spoke to the class. The lesson ended, they arose to go to the sloyd room; then, when it chanced that these two were not perfectly in line, quietly, without a gesture, she told them to fall in line and instantly it was done, their quick eyes reading the command across the length of the big room."

After the close of the school Miss Kilpatrick wrote about these two boys: "We made no signs in our communication with them other than a light touch to attract their attention if they were busy when we wished to address them. They were much more apt in taking up manual work than ordinary children. They were tractable and very grateful for any attention we showed them, and I feel assured were much benefited by their association with normal children. Whoever suggested that a place be made for these poor afflicted children did a most kind and generous act."

That suggestion sprang from two sources. Last winter, in Washington, I was asked by Dr. Alexander Graham Bell, "Why don't you Philadelphians admit a few deaf children into your vacation schools?" And he quoted the saying that "the best thing for a deaf child is to be one in a school of hearing children."

Shortly after, I heard from Mr. Hubbert, chairman of the Philadelphia Board of Education's Committee on Vacation Schools and Playgrounds, that already in the summer of 1902, one such had been admitted by Miss Higgins into her school. In a letter dated February, 1903, she gave this account of it: "There was a deaf child in the Thomas Wood School. He came to us through Miss Sparhawk, one of the teachers at Mt. Airy, where he attended school during the winter session. He lived in the immediate neighborhood of the Wood School. As the influence of the streets during the vacation months would undo some of the good accomplished at Mt. Airy, Miss Sparhawk asked me to admit him. I placed him with one of my best teachers and only now and then heard that he was an extra charge. He did very well in manual work and especially so in the sloyd room. I remember he made a bird-house, which he had his father come to see at the exhibition. That he remained with us and came regularly is evidence of the success of the experiment. The contact in school life with other children not deaf gave a training that I think must be beneficial. It was six weeks in the world in which he is to labor and live. His father's plan, I think, is to make him a cabinet-maker. So you see he will have to mingle with other men differently endowed than himself."

So after all, whose suggestion was it? Into the path towards which a man of science was pointing, a woman's loving hand had already led a little child, guided by her practical insight as to how he could and should be helped.

This year the idea has taken root and grown. The experiment was safeguarded by the careful oversight of the Board of Education's Committee; and by help given to the teachers in various suggestions gathered from Dr. Crouter of the Mt. Airy School for the Deaf, and other leading experts, for example, the admission of only such children as understood lip-reading.

The reason for this was demonstrated in the Mills School where an exception was made. Miss Grier, the principal, said, "We had with us, for a time, three deaf children, all from one family. The oldest, a boy of fourteen, remained the entire term, the girl a few weeks, and the youngest only a few days. The boy never missed a session. I gave him, as far as I deemed advisable,

the work of his choice, and at the close of the term he had completed some very creditable work. His sister became tired of the work. The boy had been trained in lip-reading and the girl partially so. The youngest had never been in a school, so we put her in a kindergarten." The mother begged for this little one's admission. That was an error of love, but most evidently an error, for, as Miss Grier says, "The child was thoroughly unaccustomed to the discipline of a school-room, and as she yelled constantly she unnerved many of the little ones. The mother remained with her, but saw she herself could do nothing with her." The child therefore was at once withdrawn.

The one deaf boy in the South-West School was placed by the principal under the special care of Miss Hogg, who reports: "With reference to my deaf boy, E. L., I can most confidently say that his work and conduct during the six weeks were highly commendable. During that time he did not lose one single session. Usually he was almost the first boy to arrive in the morning. If there was any work to be prepared before school-time, he always could be relied upon to do it and to do it right. Rather than being a hardship, as we might suppose, it was interesting to have him in the class. His work was remarkable for exactness and neatness. After the first few days the boys of the class became his warm friends and were always eager to help him understard and seemed pleased when he endeavored to converse with them. Although the closing day was so extremely stormy, E. was there. He assisted me in putting things away and when we had finished, I said, 'This is our last day. Are you glad, or sorry?' He replied, 'Sorry.' Then I said,'Why?' He answered, 'I like it.' The work done in vacation schools seems to me particularly adapted for children such as he."

From the James Forten School, the principal, Miss Finley, wrote, "We are delighted with the deaf child here. They say he does just what you tell him, and most of the time is able to go along his own way to help himself. He is a great favorite in the sloyd room, and has made himself a fine hammock, a picture-frame, a towel-roller, etc."

Miss Crawford, speaking of M., in the Thomas Wood School, said, "She made a blue and white bead chain under my instruc-

tion, and was no trouble to teach. Her color work in nature study was remarkable." M. had been taught speech and lip-reading in Miss Garrett's 'Home for the Training in Speech of Deaf Children before they are of School Age.' She is one of two girls who having completed their training there at the same time, have since been attending the public day schools for hearing children, watching each other in a rivalry to see who can advance quickest and farthest. Hearing of a vacation school, M. made her way there, keeping very still about it. But next summer the other girl means to catch up in the race and be in a vacation school too."

The larger part of this experiment was put through in the new Powers Vacation School under Mrs. Lever. First let me give in her own words a slight picture of the other work there: "On the first day that the school opened" (when between 500 and 600 were enrolled and 900 had to be turned away),"I asked how many had ever attended any vacation school before, and when not a hand went up, I entered the work with fear and trembling, for my teachers too were new to the work. But my surprise knew no bounds when after a week's training everything was running as smoothly as if it had been organized a year. The way those children worked was proof positive that vacation schools are not only a necessity but a blessing. I insisted on good solid work, threw out sloppy work, starting the child right, explaining in a little kindly talk with the teacher that it was not half so much the making of many articles for an exhibition as it was helping to build up a character for the child."

In this school was a one-armed boy, whose mother insisted that after awhile he must earn not only his own living, but that of his father and mother, and that as he had only one arm he must give all his attention to drawing and writing. "It was her greed for money," said Mrs. Lever, "that drove the boy out before he was able to take care of himself. Well, I took my own way with Willie. He came to me one day and in a half shame-faced way intimated that he was at best only half a boy, that he saw nothing in the vacation school for him to do but paint. I found him sullen and irritable, and I knew why. His ambition was crushed because he felt that he was not like other boys. What boy is happy

who is always idle ? I convinced Willie that it would rest him after painting to just go down and observe in the sloyd room, and also told him to go down any time he felt like it. I asked the sloyd teacher not to notice him, but to help him if he felt like doing anything. I watched him closely; this sowing the seed of self-reliance was a great undertaking. But day by day the seed took root and grew till Willie lifted up his head like a little man. We taught him that the loss of his arm was only a misfortune. He learned to fasten his work to a bench and he made a hammock needle, a letter-box, and a tabouret. I taught him how to make a hammock, or rather how they were made. This work he could not do himself, but he knows how and he taught about three dozen boys how to do it. One of these boys made him a hammock for himself. He walked out of the school taking all these things, a boy helping him; but he took with him other and better things that he did not possess when he came—self-respect, self-reliance, a better opinion of himself and the world in general, and the courage to try all things that hereafter come in his way." And to the mother, proud of his achievement, had come a larger vision of what her son's future should be.

Here also was a one-eyed boy whose mother insisted that he could only learn to write, must not be taught like the others, as to try that would only make him painfully aware of his own deficiency. It took patience and tact to lead her into the larger understanding, the truer sympathy that would rejoice in seeing him forget his loss while learning the happiness of being busy like other boys.

This school had to struggle in the opening days with the serious misfortune of the sloyd teacher's failure to appear. Before another could be secured many disappointed boys departed, among them all but one of the deaf boys. In those days, Mrs. Lever wrote, "We have one deaf child here yet, G., and he is so delighted. He has made a beautiful large jardiniere of reed, and is now making a hammock with a needle and mesh-stick which he made himself. And he is happy all the time. His eyes sparkle and his face dimples in smiles every minute of the day. It makes my heart sing just to think what enjoyment we are throwing into his silent life."

To have lost the other boys was a genuine disappointment to Mrs. Lever. Therefore as soon as the new sloyd teacher was established she sent them postals, but without avail.

Finally she succeeded, and this is the tale: "I determined that afternoon to hunt up at least one of these boys, so I called Miss Peters to the office and she volunteered to go with me. It was after five o'clock when we left the school, and it was just six when we found this boy's home. Fortunately the boy M. was there too, but it took us until 7.30 to persuade them to come back. The boy M. has a good disposition and is easily persuaded, but the other is stubborn and sullen and very ugly in his stubbornness. But I recognized the fact that in the silence of his life things are not always the same color to him that they are to us, and that the deaf often misunderstand. And so I sat there patiently trying to win him over. I found out that every deaf boy who came to my school misunderstood and thought that the sloyd room was a big carpenter shop and that painting was house and sign painting. So my heart went out to them for the disappointment they had suffered. For a while I was at a loss to know how to get them back, and the mother too was worried about them. Fortunately I quickly thought out a plan that captured them. I found from their talk that they were poor and needed a little spending money sometimes, but they wanted to earn it. So I told them that I would buy some lumber myself, also some hammock cord, and just let them work entirely in the sloyd room and at hammocks, and that they might have everything they made and that they could sell them. That appealed to them so much that the sullen boy got up and shook hands with me and smiled his pleasure at the scheme and said that he would come. They both came the next day and were happy all day. I had the sloyd teacher take special work with them, and for one hour I had two boys teach them hammock-weaving. I have ordered hammock-cord and lumber that cost $3.00[1]. Still I know how glad you will be that two, even two, poor lives are the happier for our work. If they bring the other four in, I will write."

A conversation occurred that morning of return between

[1]The Civic Club asked to be allowed to pay that $3.00 and gladly took other opportunities of giving a helping hand.

the sullen boy and Mrs. Lever: "What time will school close in the afternoon ? We were told that we would work here from 9 to 12 in the morning, not work in the afternoon. When will school close ?"

"You need not work in the afternoon unless you want to. The boys like to work because they get more done. They work until 3.15. Never feel that you are in the way here at all. It gives us great pleasure to teach you and grieves us when you stay away. We want to help you. Tell us at any time what you want to do. Stop your own work and look at the others do their work whenever you think you can learn anything. Come to me whenever things go wrong, and I will help you. Let us be good comrades and help each other." "Yes; I stay now; I like it."

A few days later, Mrs. Lever wrote, "I am so happy to tell you that I have three more fine boys that are deaf. How they enjoyed the picnic to Bartram's Garden. I took with me Miss Rhodes' Story of Philadelphia. I went over the place with them, pointing out every nook and cranny mentioned in the book. The little G. boy comes every day, happy as a lark and playing just like other children. It amuses him so when he does not hear Miss Peters coming and she catches him at some mischief. He laughs as if it were a joke. One other boy came to the school this morning. Just think what this must mean to them when they come all the way from Roxborough to us," (this being between five and six miles.)

"The deaf boys are still with us," wrote Mrs. Lever, on August 8th, "and are grateful for what they have learned. They have been bringing their lunches, and work from 8 A. M. until nearly 5 P. M. Four of them told me they were not so anxious to get things made as they were to learn the more intricate things in sloyd, such as dove-tailing, mitering, etc. Their teacher was afraid I might not like it because of the exhibition, but I explained that the exhibition was nothing compared to the knowledge they would gain. So she went ahead and took great pleasure in teaching them just what they wanted. The boy McG. has patiently worked at dove-tailing until at last he has produced a salt-box that would be a credit to any boy."

After the close of school, Mrs. Lever wrote, "The boy Q.,

(the sullen boy,) "turned out to be the best workman we had. Once he became interested in the hammocks and sloyd, he was a changed boy. He seemed so much happier and better pleased with himself and everybody. It was an experience that he and McG. will never forget. They laughed and jested together and had good times with all the boys. I had the boys well posted just how to talk to them. There never was any unpleasantness nor any friction at any time after they came back. Their work all through was fine. They quickly learned that what I wanted them to do was to get into the habit of doing everything the best way, and Miss Daly told me they worked like beavers to get my word of approval when work was all right.

"The deaf need lots of encouragement and those around them should be sure that they always understand all situations, for they sadly misunderstand sometimes. I know that the deaf in my school learned lots of lessons that they will carry through life. They could not get the experience at Mt. Airy, or any other place of the kind, that they got at the vacation school. At Mt. Airy everyone knows how to talk to them. Here in the school they were out in the world without any help of that kind, and learned to meet people whom they had to understand. And then the other side of it—what a world of good it did the children with whom they came in contact. When they first came, there was a little disposition on the part of some of the children to tease them and make game of them. But a talk in the morning, presenting the pitiful state of the deaf, and an appeal to them to help them, to be kind to them, to not notice their affliction, and to act with them just as they would with any of the boys, had the desired effect and I had no further trouble. The roughest boy in the school vied with the most courteous to do anything in his power for them.

"About twenty deaf visited the closing exhibition and many of them expressed keen disappointment that they had not attended the school. The seven deaf boys came to my office in a body on the last day and S., speaking for the rest, thanked me for my kindness."

These seven were in a class of fifty, and Mrs. Lever considered that a good proportion. The thought was, no two deaf

should be together, but that they should be scattered through the room and each deaf child isolated by being surrounded by hearing children. In this class six hearing children seemed sufficient to surround and look after one deaf child. It was found that a deaf boy always preferred to ask information of a hearing pupil rather than of one who being deaf might have missed the meaning like himself. The teachers in this school never used signs in the school-room, as Mrs. Lever's aim was to help fit these children for mingling with others in ordinary life.

After the close of the schools, the supervisor wrote, "I am glad to do anything in my power to advance the beautiful work among deaf children, and am only grateful for the opportunity to cooperate in it. I was so happy to notice not only the progress made by these children, but the delight of the teachers in the work. Never did one hesitate when asked to admit a deaf child into her class."

JANE HUBBARD,
Chairman of the Civic Club Committee
on Vacation Schools.

CONTEMPORARY THOUGHT.

THE HEARING OF SPEECH OF MENTALLY WEAK CHILDREN.

It produces a strange impression when in advertisements of institutions and classes for persons hard of hearing, the reader is made to believe that children with a defective sense of hearing who cannot make any progress either in public schools or in institutions for the deaf, will profit by attending classes for persons hard of hearing. Presuming that, owing to their defective hearing, they cannot get on in the public schools, this does not prove that they will not get on in schools for the deaf. It is true that in these classes the method of instruction of the deaf is employed. The German institutions for the deaf have eight grades, and even the remnants of hearing are used and thereby kept in practice. Under these circumstances there can be no doubt that preference should be given to a larger educational institution, over an institution having only one class, because in this children of different age and capacity have to be instructed together. In comparing the results obtained with children hard of hearing in these special classes, and those obtained with the same kind of children in schools for the deaf, the latter institutions need not fear the comparison, especially as regards: a, the amount of knowledge gathered; b, speech; and c, capacity for intercourse with others. It is positively unjustifiable if weak minded children are examined as to their capacity for hearing, exactly as if they were mentally normal children, but simply hard of hearing. For, it requires a certain mental capacity for a child to give information as to its being able or not to hear. To fix the status of such children is still more difficult than in normally endowed children who are hard of hearing. It has been observed that a large percentage of children with defective hearing, owing to the circumstance that their condition is misjudged, are classed among the idiots; whilst it can be positively proved that children who are only mentally weak are classed among those with defective hearing and even among the deaf. This happens even when these children are subjected to a most careful examination. Dr. H. Gutzmann cites a very striking case which came under his observation:

A girl four years old was, after examination by one of the most prominent aurists of Germany, declared to be a deaf-mute; and half a year later she spontaneously commenced to speak. And cases like this are by no means rare. In this connection it may be well to become perfectly clear as to the meaning of the term "the sense of hearing speech." Does this simply mean to *hear* the speech, or also to understand it?

How can it be ascertained whether a child is a deaf-mute, or mentally weak, whether it does not speak because it does not hear, or whether—as is alleged—it does not hear and does not speak from mental weakness, from lack of intelligence ? Let us take two six-year old children. One of them is a deaf-mute, the other mute from mental weakness. Even if frequently the idiotic expression which is not a characteristic of a deaf-mute, shows the child to be mentally weak, it must be granted that not every mentally weak child looks idiotic, and that not every deaf-mute child is free from such an expression. If you enter into intercourse with such children, the mentally normal but deaf-mute child shows a more or less developed sign language. It expresses by mimics what is going on in its mind; but the mentally weak child does not do this. If both of them are looking out of the window and some one knocks, back of them, the deaf-mute child will turn round, whilst the mentally weak child may do so accidentally, but not otherwise.

The same uncertainty which is found in the examination of deaf-mutes as regards their ability to hear, is also found in the examination of mentally weak children, especially as to their inability to hear. This is shown by the large number of children with defective hearing which physicians are said to have found among the mentally weak. In the results of such investigations the large number of persons with defective hearing is very striking, as well as the great difference in these numbers ascertained by different authors, varying between 12 and 90. The difference is apt to awaken doubts. What in many cases is by physicians taken for defective hearing, may be traced to mental backwardness. It is not the physical hearing which is lacking, but the capacity of perception is not properly developed. The hearing of speech is not like the hearing of sounds, a physical and sensual capacity, but such a capacity combined with a mental function. In hearing sounds the child is mentally passive, in hearing speech it is mentally active. What is needed here is the development of the hearing of speech, not by mechanical means, but by the development of the speech—as to sounds and ideas.

For the development of speech, which, owing to the lack of the central sense of hearing of speech, could not develop in a

natural way, articulation-instruction, just as in schools for the deaf, is needed in the beginning, which presses into its service the senses of hearing, seeing, and touch.

From the above statements it becomes apparent that,

1. The mentally weak child is frequently taken as being defective in hearing, because, owing to the backwardness of its mind and speech, it cannot prove its power of peripheric hearing.

2. The instruction of such mentally weak children should, it is true, aim at the sharpening of the peripheric hearing, but should principally look toward the development of the central hearing of speech.

3. This is done by speech itself; for which reason instruction should consist in articulation exercises and object lessons.

4. This instruction is an integral part of the course in special classes, so that special arrangements for these children with so-called defective hearing is not needed.—[F. Jänicke in Medizinisch-pädagogische Monatsschrift für die gesemmte Sprachheilkunde.]

THE PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS AMONG THE DEAF.

All civilized nations at the present time wage a war against tuberculosis, this terrible scourge of humanity. The school can not look on idle, but should do its duty in this respect. And what applies to the school in general, applies particularly to schools for the deaf. The assertion that tuberculosis makes great ravages among the deaf is unfortunately only too well founded; for our statistics show that a disproportionately large number of former pupils of the schools for the deaf become victims of this dread disease. Its extent may be gathered from the following statistics (relating of course not to the deaf only). In Austria, 90,000 persons die on an average of tuberculosis every year. According to Prof. Leyden the number of persons affected with this disease in Germany is never less than 1,200,000, and about 180,000 die of it every year. The number of deaths from tuberculosis averages 7300 per year in the city of Vienna. Grouped according to age, the percentage of deaths in Vienna is as follows: up to the completed 5th year, 16.3%; from the 6th to the 14th year, 4.2%; from the 15th to the 20th year, 6.4%; from the 20th to the 60th year, 63.7%; above 60 years, 9.2%. These statistics carefully prepared by competent persons, show that tuberculosis is not

very dangerous during the years of childhood and old age, but principally in those years when men and women are in the full enjoyment of physical health and best able to earn a living; but they also show that a great deal can be done during school age to prevent and cure tuberculosis. In France and other countries of Europe sanitariums for children suffering from tuberculosis have been founded, as it has been found advisable to remove every child suffering from tuberculosis from the school, and place it in a sanitarium. The advantages of this measure will be seen from the fact that of children 10 to 16 years old, 29% were completely cured; 3 to 9 years, 34%; 3 to 7 years, 50%. All children who enter an institution for the deaf should, therefore, on entering be carefully examined as to any possible traces of tuberculosis; and whenever such are found, they should be placed, if possible, in special sanitaria.

If the question is asked in what manner should the school aid in combatting tuberculosis, the following should be stated as applying in the first line to all schools, but more especially to schools for the deaf: The schoolrooms should have the greatest possible amount of light and air, these two most efficient destroyers of bacteria. The rooms should be kept scrupulously clean; there should be plenty of exercise out in the open air—walks, excursions, gymnastics, garden work. One great point is to harden the bodies of our often physically weak deaf pupils—by cold baths every day, by learning swimming. The food should be plain but plentiful and nourishing. Pupils should at an early age be warned against the use of alcoholic beverages, for there is a close connection between their use and tuberculosis. This is shown by the circumstance that of 1000 waiters in saloons and restaurants, where the temptation to drinking to excess is particularly great, 528 died of tuberculosis. In this connection it must be stated that, with the view to prevent tuberculosis, pupils, when after a completed course they leave the institution, should be guided and advised as to the choice of occupation. Physically weak deaf, and those who show a tendency toward diseases of the lungs, should be warned against occupations which favor the development of tuberculosis. In trades where there is a great amount of dust, there are more cases of tuberculosis than in others. Most dangerous is the metal dust; the young deaf should therefore be warned against trades where they would have to work with metals. Fortunately but few deaf choose such trades. Vegetable and animal dust works injury in the trades of tailors, workers in feathers, textile workers, etc. Carpenters and turners suffer from wood-dust, and book binders from the dust

from paper and books. Weak deaf persons should also be kept away from trades where they have to work in close rooms or in rooms filled with noxious fumes, such as all printing trades, in which so many deaf find employment.

That the choice of a trade plays an important part in the spread of tuberculosis, is shown by statistics taken in Vienna. The largest percentage of mortality from tuberculosis is found among turners, viz., 77%; carpenters, 75%; book binders, 70.8%. The majority of persons suffering from tuberculosis die before the 35th year; particularly short is the duration of life among tailors, as the average age of persons dying from tuberculosis is only 27.9 years.

In view of these facts, it would be wise to subject all the young deaf to a careful medical examination when they leave the institution, especially as regards the tendency to tuberculosis. The result of this examination should be the guide in the choice of an occupation. The deaf with weak lungs should be kept away from large cities, and as far as possible engage in agricultural or horticultural pursuits. If these rules are observed, the old adage "mens sana in corpore sano" will, at least to a greater degree than is the case at present, prove true as regards our young deaf.—[Blätter für Taubstummenbildung.]

THE CARE OF THE ADULT DEAF.

By adult deaf we understand all those who, after having finished their schooling, enter real life to earn their daily bread. Not with fervent hopes do we see many of our pupils leave the institution. Much good advice we would like to give to this one and that one; and for many a one we would wish a strong friend to stand by his side, to guide him with firm hand through the many dangers which beset the path of life. It is true, what Prof. Walther says in his "Manual of Deaf-mute Education," that the deaf remain more or less children who have difficulty in finding their way in the mazes of this busy world, who easily make mistakes, and are easily over-reached and deceived by others.

Many are the measures which have been taken to guide and support hearing young persons after they leave school, and to raise up those who have fallen. The number of such measures is legion. On the other hand, nothing, or comparatively little, has been done in this direction for the deaf. And yet they need this more, to a double or threefold degree, than hearing persons.

They are deprived of one of the most important weapons in the battle for existence, the sense of hearing. For religious and moral reasons, therefore, and for the furtherance of their material interests, it is an absolute necessity to care for our adult deaf. This care should be directed: first, to *religious* training; second, to *further intellectual education*; and third, to *efficient aid to the poor* and sick. It is the duty of the teachers of the deaf to stand by their former pupils with advice and aid, to find suitable ways and means for such aid, and to interest benevolent persons in their behalf.

Most of the young deaf when leaving the institution, return to their homes to stay there at least for some time. Special measures are taken to strengthen the scattered young hearing persons in their faith; and in a still greater measure this should be done as regards the deaf.

It is a custom in many of our institutions to give to the deaf, when they leave, their old religious textbooks (bible-history, catechism, prayerbook). These books they have studied during the last years of their schooling; they do not serve the purposes of edification, but only remind the deaf of their hard school days. The consequence is that these books are not used. It is, on the other hand, to be recommended to give to the deaf these same books, but new, handsome, unused copies. Let them be handed to the deaf at their confirmation, in a solemn meeting, with addresses and prayer. It would not be amiss if the teacher wrote in each book a personal dedication to the pupils. In this way the deaf would be induced to look upon these books not as mere text books, but as works of edification.

To show what can be done, we cite the example of the Cologne Institution for the Deaf, which in the case of every pupil who leaves, sends a letter of recommendation to the minister and teacher at his home. It is well not to give these letters to the pupils, as they would frequently not reach the persons for whom they are intended, but to send them direct by mail to the teacher or minister, who will then consider it his duty to look up the deaf pupil.

All these measures, however, do not give to the deaf what a hearing person enjoys in attending divine service. To supply this want special religious services for the deaf have been arranged at Berlin, Hannover, Cassel, and other large German cities. Clergymen preached who were supposed to be acquainted with the sign language; but so imperfectly that in many cases the deaf could not understand them. But there was another drawback: the deaf were given free tickets on the railroads. This

of course drew wonderfully; as many as 5000 or 6000 attended these meetings; many of course with the avowed purpose to get a free trip to a large city and enjoy its legitimate—and we are sorry to say in many cases, its illegitimate pleasures. It has, therefore, become the practice in Prussia to hold an annual religious festival in cities where there is an institution for the deaf, for the deaf who live in those cities. Although these festivals have in many instances proved a positive blessing, they will always remain a makeshift. The religious needs of the adult deaf must be met in another way. For this purpose the government authorities in many states of Germany have arranged courses for clergymen to prepare them for the work of pastoral care of the deaf. Pastoral visits which are undoubtedly among the most important duties of a clergyman, should be considered doubly important in the case of the deaf. The clergyman should not wait till the deaf person comes to him, but should go to see him; he should become the most intimate friend of the deaf, to whom they can come with all their troubles. If this rule is carefully and conscientiously observed, the deaf will derive much greater benefit from divine service.

The following may be said as regards the further intellectual education of the adult deaf. The deaf desire to know what is going on in the world, and the newspaper meets this desire. It was said recently in one of the most prominent German periodicals: "There are only three fountains of knowledge which flow steadily and for all men, sometimes one alone, sometimes two, and often all three together: the church, the newspaper and good reading matter." During the last years of schooling the pupils in our institutions, in the hours devoted to conversational exercises, read daily and weekly papers, illustrated papers, and periodicals. But will they continue this after they have been apprenticed to some trade? In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred this will not be done. They find it impossible to read a daily paper, because their master will not grant the necessary time and because this will often involve an expense. Only weekly publications can, therefore, come into question. It is, therefore, recommended that every institution for the deaf furnish free to each pupil for two or three years after leaving the institution some good weekly or periodical. This plan is not as chimerical as may appear to some. It is practically carried out at the Institution for the Blind at Bromberg, Prussia. A weekly, printed in raised letters, is sent free to all former pupils of the institution. Each number contains a poem, a tale, some sketches of travel, articles relating to different trades, and humorous articles.

Schools for adult deaf have been in existence in several German cities for a number of years and have without exception proved a success. The difficulty of supplying further education to adult deaf is found in the case of the deaf living scattered in cities where there is no institution for the deaf, and no supplementary course for adult deaf; so that they have to attend the supplementary courses or evening schools for hearing persons, where they frequently become the butt of the mocking remarks of their hearing comrades. Still, it will be better for the deaf to attend these courses, even at a disadvantage; they will, at any rate, derive some benefit from instruction in drawing, penmanship, and arithmetic.

As regards material advancement of the adult deaf, the following should be stated: After the pupil leaves the school, some trade or occupation is to be selected. There seems to be no difficulty in finding this, as a premium is paid to persons who will take deaf-mute pupils as apprentices in their business; but the difficulty is to find the right occupation in each case. The society for aiding the deaf, in the district of Wiesbaden, sets a good example in this respect. It says in its by-laws: "The local committee of the society appoints in the town where the person lives to whom the deaf is apprenticed, a thoroughly reliable man of good repute who is to be the intermediary between the apprentice and master, parents, guardians, and the committee. A question sheet which is furnished to him will facilitate his work; all persons concerned will do their utmost to have the apprentice trained in obedience, diligence, order, cleanliness, punctuality, and to lead a pious and moral course of life; and see to it that he is thoroughly instructed in the trade he has chosen."

After the time of apprenticeship has come to an end, the young deaf will—as is the custom of all mechanics in Germany—go on their journeys, getting employment wherever they can find it. Unfortunately, these journeys are not always beneficial, and some come back from them morally deteriorated; they would rather live from the alms which in Germany are doled out to all journeying mechanics, than seek work. The benefits derived from these journeys are, therefore, extremely doubtful, as in many cases an apprentice starts out as a good young man, eager to seek work and improve himself, but returns as a tramp.

Finally, the time comes when the deaf, like other men, want to settle down and marry. This is the period when they stand most in need of substantial aid. The Association for aiding the deaf in the Wiesbaden District appears to be a model institution of the kind, and has an annual income (from free con-

tributions) of 3466 marks ($825), all of which is expended during the year. In 1903, 38 poor deaf received pecuniary aid. Among them were carpenters, plasterers, printers, photographers, gardeners, and bakers. Money was furnished for supplying sewing machines, tools, and clothes. Among those to whom such aid was extended were fifteen girls, of whom six have already established themselves as dressmakers. The principal aim, however, should be to get the independent deaf working man as much work as possible. Deafness is an affliction which does not strike the eye of the public as much as blindness. If, for example, a deaf and a blind basket maker live side by side, the blind will get the most custom. How is this state of things to be remedied? Simply by liberal advertising and by well written articles in the newspapers calculated to awaken a more general interest in the deaf. The Berlin City Institution for the Deaf sets a good example in this respect; and the Press-Association of the Province of Silesia has published many hundreds of articles in the interest of the deaf in large and small journals.

Finally, something should be said regarding the aged deaf, who are no longer able to earn a living. The only way to properly care for them is to found asylums or homes for the aged; and fortunately a number of such homes have of late years been founded in Germany, in nearly all cases by private benevolence; and the interest in this matter is constantly increasing.—[Blätter für Taubstummenbildung.]

THE INSTITUTION PRESS.

SPELLING IN CHAPEL.

We started the ball rolling recently when we said that our chapel exercises are conducted by manual spelling. One member of the l. p. f., The Washingtonian, fears we are short-sighted and are on a tangent. Our brother of the Pacific thinks we must have exceptionally bright young children if they get any knowledge of what we say in chapel and so on.

For three years we have advocated in our institution, speech, spelling, writing, and signs; speech for all who can learn to use it profitably, spelling and writing for those who will not become oral pupils, and signs when the other three means fail to reach the end desired. We don't believe we are far off the track either, for how will a deaf child ever learn to use English intelligently unless he habitually uses it—speaks it, spells it, writes it, and thinks it? How can a fish swim if there is no water in which to move his fins? The air is too thin. We learn to do by doing, all of us. Experience with English, common every day English, spoken, spelled, or written, in class, in the shops, in chapel, everywhere, must make our children better acquainted with its use and, therefore, better users of it.

We do not expect our youngest children to get everything we say in chapel, neither do we think that our oldest and brightest pupils will carry with them all that is said there. We do hope, however, and our hopes are being realized, that almost all our pupils get at least a wholesome thought each morning. If they absorb one good and beautiful thought every day from our talks in the chapel we shall be entirely satisfied.

We do not believe young children should attend "lectures" in chapel or anywhere else, but we do know that pupils who have been taught to speak, to *spell,* and to write well, can get something out of a chapel *talk* given in expressive manual spelling. We believe that our pupils would get more of moral instruction if we had *graded chapel talks*; for instance: primary, intermediate, and advanced divisions. Such a classification would be far-reaching, and the results, we believe, would justify such a change in many of our schools, especially those having several hundred pupils.

We started this bit of friction and are glad of it, for we feel that if there is some rubbing once in a while some real good will result. All

this controversy may be of great benefit. There can be no polishing without some rubbing.

Here is what all of our teachers have to say on the subject of "spelling in chapel":

If you can produce conditions which will leave nothing to be desired in order to enable pupils to see the manipulations of the hands *easily and clearly*, then let the average grade of the matter be adapted to the average grade of the pupils, and *let it be spelled.* However, if spelling is not a large factor of the class room work, then chapel talks in spelling do not receive the support they should have. No system can produce its best results unless there is harmony of thought and harmony of action among the teachers. I would not be understood, however, as believing that there is nothing to be said in favor of signs. E. HENNE.

It is true that the first and second year pupils do not get much of the chapel talk given wholly by finger spelling. Neither do they get much of it given by means of the sign language. The Lord's prayer means as much to them spelled as signed, and mighty little either way. The chief benefit derived by them is the discipline of the chapel service. For the older pupils the prime object of the chapel talk is the cultivation of the child's moral nature and this can best be done through the sign language. If the direct object were to perfect the pupil in English, then finger spelling would be the best. Spelling is, undoubtledly, the best means to this end. But the chapel exercise is, in no sense, for this purpose.

J. P. BUSH.

Spelling the chapel talks is more beneficial than signing them because it requires the pupil to pay closer attention to get the thought. and the impression made upon the mind is, therefore, more vivid, stronger, and consequently more lasting. KATHERINE KING.

I think that finger spelling for the deaf in chapel is better for them than is the sign language. Why? Why is it better for them in the schoolroom? We will all say "Because it gives them better language." It does the same thing in chapel. If it will give them better reading, arithmetic, etc., it will give them better moral instruction. They can tell as much about a story after having seen it spelled as they can after having seen it signed. I know this from experience, for I have had them produce chapel talks given both ways. True, many of the small children get but little when it is spelled. The same can be said of the signs. If we are going to teach them by spelling and speaking, why not begin at the beginning? "Train up a child the way he should go and when he is old he will not depart therefrom." MAX W. WOODBURY.

Even if a story is very graphically signed in chapel, how many of the younger children give enough attention to get the point? I doubt if the first and second year pupils ever get anything out of the chapel talks except learning to submit to discipline in sitting still for fifteen minutes or so. We agree heartily that the time to train a child in morality is in the impressionable days of childhood, but is not the place the school room, rather than the chapel? Is not the actual experience and punishment for evil doing easier reached and more lasting in its impression on his small understanding than signing a story with a moral, to him? It would be a cruelty to the tots to expect them to get their only moral training in chapel talks, and if their infant minds fail to grasp the point the poor babies are to be neglected until too late. A moral story signed with much

expression might entertain one of these infants, but we doubt if his understanding is large enough to take it in and apply it.

ELIZABETH DE LONG.

In my opinion it depends to a very much greater extent on whether the subject matter be within the comprehensive range of the children than it does on the medium used by the lecturer. If the lecturer places himself on a plane with the children he will get quite as much response from a spelled as from a signed (strictly speaking) lecture. Pantomime would no doubt bring more response. Our friend seems to think the moral training of our deaf children depends entirely on our chapel exercises. He was never more mistaken in his life. There is seldom a language lesson given that does not carry with it a moral lesson as well. The same is true of our reading lessons, and I think I am right when I say that the great majority of language lessons, reading lessons, action lessons, and busy hour lessons, are fraught with moral lessons as well. I am speaking of the first three years in school.

FRANCES N. EDDY.

I think the little one will receive more permanent benefit both morally and intellectually by the use of the manual alphabet in chapel talks. If they learn but one moral truth each day, expressed in language that they can understand and use, it will be remembered.

WILHELMINA KRAUSE.

Here is what our pupils got from a chapel talk given wholly by spelling, Monday, April 25th. They were not aware that they would be asked to reproduce any of it.

Second and third grade oral classes having a knowledge of manual spelling:

Question written: What did Mr. Driggs tell you in chapel this morning?

Answer: If we want to succeed we must work harder.
If we want to be wise we must study harder.
Pat got a position because he was honest and ambitious.
We must be attentive. We must be all business.

A Fourth Grade Oral-Manual Pupil wrote:

"This morning, in chapel, Mr. Driggs told us about being superior. Mr. Farnham and Mr. Wall looked for Pat O'Callaghan for a few days. They knew Pat was a superior boy. General Brady loved Pat very much. Mr. Driggs wants us to be superior in education."

From a Seventh Grade Pupil:

" 'Do things a little better than any one else can do them.' If we wish to be superior we should do the work and study. If we do half of our work we will not be superior. One boy is superior over 150,000 boys who are uneducated. Pat in the story told by Mr. Driggs in the chapel never hunted for a job by himself, but they chose him. That is because he was a superior boy. We can be like that. If any one studies his lessons harder than others do, he will stand ahead of them in the class."

A Tenth Grade Pupil:

BE SUPERIOR.

"Do things a little better than any one else can do them.

"Mr. Driggs told us that he was reading in Success a few days ago an article entitled 'Superiority.'

"He asked us 'What we are to do if we wished to become superior?' 'Do things a little better than any one else can do them.' Also if we wish to learn while in school to 'work and study' for if there is only one boy out of several thousand that are uneducated who ever becomes superior. If we do things a little better than any one else can do them, we will not have to hunt for work—work will hunt for us. A boy or girl who quits school before he or she graduates has but one chance in more than a thousand to ever become superior. But nearly all of those who acquire a good college education are superior."—The Utah Eagle.

[A subsequent issue of the Eagle continues the discussion as follows:]

We are glad to see so much space given by the members of the l. p. f. to the burning question, "Manual Spelling in Chapel," for we know it is doing at least a little good somewhere, and besides, it is so helpful to have something about which to write an editorial.

Recently we received a letter from a friend, who, by the way, is one of the foremost educators of the deaf in our country, and a very able writer upon the education of the deaf. He is a man whose parents were deaf, and he has, therefore, the welfare of the deaf at heart more than many other educators. We are going to tell you what he says, because it is so good, and we know he will not object if we use his exact words.

Our friend begins by congratulating us on our Eagle and upon the showing made with our English tests, as well as the testimony of our teachers given in the last issue. He adds that we are right, "everlastingly right," on the question of the English versus the sign method.

"The fact is," he says, "there is no use trying to compromise on the question of signs, no more than on the question of sin (though I don't mean that signs are sin, even at their worst). But they are alike in this: you indulge a little, and you wish you hadn't—for it means a lot of trouble of one kind or another to follow. Best be a 'total abstainer,' then we have nothing to repent or regret. They talk of signs being natural, so is sin; so are weeds in a garden. And foolishness is natural, too, I fear, in some of our good friends who argue for the sign-language on the ground of its being the natural language of the deaf. Any language is natural if it is *used constantly* and *for all purposes*, for it is learned through the operation of perfectly natural laws and forces. Then the happiness argument! Why, there are no children happier than deaf children who can understand and use English! It doubles, trebles their happiness, too, when they go home in vacation and can use English freely, spoken or written—and sign-language pupils *can not do that.* It is hard enough for them to use English in school as a task, let alone using it at home with semi-strangers for any happiness it may bring them. And then, consider the *after-school-life* and its happiness! It is wholly dependent on the amount of English possessed, in the case of nine deaf out of ten; and I have known a lot of them with poor English, practically with none at all, who, in consequence, were mere drudges and living only an animal existence, their only 'language' the motions that the hearing use and understand."

In the last Eagle our Miss King said:

"Spelling the chapel talks is more beneficial than signing them because it requires the pupil to pay closer attention to get the thought, and the impression made upon the mind is, therefore, more vivid, stronger, and consequently more lasting.

The Michigan Mirror, in an endeavor to refute the above, says:

"That is one of the chief arguments against it. It requires such close attention that few of the children are willing to give it. As regards the impression, we doubt if it is more vivid, stronger, and more lasting."

We fail utterly to see the Mirror man's logic here. so give a few more words from Miss King directly to the point:

"In my opinion pupils who can not understand moral and religious instruction given in good English have no place in chapel. They are only acquiring a distaste for the place and what is taught there, and indolent habits of paying attention and using their minds and time. They should receive such instruction elsewhere by any method suited to their understanding.

"The ground being now cleared for action let us proceed.

"The law of receiving mental impressions is that the closer the attention paid, the stronger, more vivid, and more lasting the effect upon the mind.

"Experience has taught me that mind wandering in our pupils is the most serious defect we have to contend with, and I think it is largely due to their training in school. They are not taught to concentrate their attention in the first years of their school life. Perhaps, because the pupil is not 'willing,' or the teacher fears to injure by requiring too much of the child, or he does not know what the child needs and how to get results without doing injustice, or because of his deafness, the teacher considers the child's mind inferior—whereas it is not inferior—simply undeveloped.

"What is necessary to genuine thinking? Concentration of attention to the matter in hand.

"Of course, care must be taken not to sustain this intense effort too long. In fact it cannot be done by the children beyond the power of the mind to do it. But our powers grow by proper use. And I am a firm believer in the benefit of the method taught in the old couplet:

"Work while you work,
Play while you play."

Some strong opposition is showing itself against the attempt in some schools to conduct chapel exercises by means of manual spelling. It really does look almost ridiculous to many of us old timers. So did the idea of so much speech teaching. The idea also of manual training was similarly viewed in some quarters. It is hard to say some times what to think of the radical moves that are occasionally made in the profession.

Are they taken just for novelty, or to do something out of the way to attract attention? It is doubtful if such an interpretation would be either kind or fair. Are they not rather indicative of a sincere dissatisfaction with present methods, or, in other words, an attempt, even if a mistaken one, to improve on old methods. We are often more ready to kick than to reflect. What has many times in the world's history been considered very wrong, even criminal, has in the end been lauded as an untold blessing. Let us give new things a little time at first. It may be that with progress in various lines and ever ameliorating conditions, the new move may not deserve quite as much condemnation as it now appears.—Warren Robinson in Wisconsin Times.

If those who believe in spelling and live up to their belief are really jeopardizing the immortal souls of their pupils, as intimated by one of the institution exchanges, then the superintendent of the Utah School has indeed taken a rash step, for there is a point beyond which experiments should not be made. Mr. Driggs is a man of experience. Before spending a year at Gallaudet College, he had experience in the schoolroom and in the chapel, and he used signs in both places. Later as a teacher and as a superintendent he has had fair opportunities to compare the values of signs and spelling as mediums for the expression of ideas. Not being an infidel, it is presumed that he has some regard for the spiritual and moral welfare of his pupils. After all, he is no pioneer. Spelling, to the exclusion of signs, has been used in the chapel services of other institutions, and effectively, if we may believe persons who have made the trial. The Rochester School, where signs are excluded on all occasions, holds a high position as a moral institution. The pupils of that school, from all reports, take an active interest in the church, in missions, and in their religious societies. Whatever may have been said against the Rochester School, it has never been charged with a lack of morality or spirituality. There is no evidence whatever, beyond the opinion of an esteemed contemporary, that signs are essential to salvation.

The assertion that lectures in signs are understood and enjoyed by the deaf of all ages and conditions, becomes more truthful when hedged about with restrictions. There is no good reason for supposing that the deaf are superior to the hearing in mental ability. No one would pretend that a hearing child of tender years, meagre education, and sluggish intellect could greatly profit by a lecture which the graduating class of a high school find difficulty in following. The First Reader and the Manual of International Law are both printed in the English language, yet the Manual is perceptibly more difficult reading. It is a great mistake to assume that expressing an idea in signs divests the idea of all difficulties that would otherwise attend it. If signs remove all difficulties, hearing students should learn signs and thereby save years of labor.

While the opinions of those who have never tried the Utah plan of conducting chapel services, are worthy of consideration, the opinions of those who have tried it are equally valuable, so far as theory and preconceived notions are concerned, and the latter have had an experience not enjoyed by all who disapprove of spelling in the chapel.—Mt. Airy World (Penn.)

THE SIGN-LANGUAGE IN THE SCHOOL ROOM.

Does Mr. Smith use the sign-language in his school room work? If so, then he should have his text books printed in that language—Palmetto Leaf, (S. C.)

The logic of the above is irresistible! If Mr. Walker uses pictures in his school-room work, then he should have his text books printed in pictures. We can say that Mr. Smith uses the English language mainly in his school-room work; but if the occasion arises when a few signs will help the pupils quickly and easily over a hard place in the road to knowledge, Mr. Smith does not consider that it is a deadly sin to use them.—Companion (Minn.)

The picture business does not apply, Bro. Smith—for pictures do not constitute a language. Pictures are aids to language.

But if we used the French language in our school-room, then we would want our text-books in that language. What we are after is, not to have two languages in our school. For, necessarily, one will be natural and the work in the other will be a translation. This occasional use of signs in a tight place we have always felt to be a reflection upon the mental ability of the class, or else it teaches the doctrine to the class that once in a while a little wrong in a tight place is to be winked at. Why do you not use the sign language all the time? Because you know that it is best not to, and so you instill this idea into the minds of the pupils. Then if the constant use is injurious, the instant use must be. We could draw numerous illustrations to uphold this statement if we thought it necessary.—Palmetto Leaf.

THE CHEFOO, CHINA, SCHOOL.

The Chefoo school for the deaf held no closing exercises. Mrs. Mills plans to have public exercises, instead, when the next term opens. This is the pioneer school for the deaf in China. There is now at least one school for the deaf in Japan. India has two; Great Britain, about 15; and the United States, nearly 100 large ones. The Chefoo school is supported mostly by these home schools and by their friends. We are glad to hear from Mrs. Mills that the interest is increasing and the support becoming more adequate. The school will soon have a fine property free of debt. The past year Mrs. Mills has been able to reduce the mortgage from $6500.00 to $2000.00, and also to purchase three additional mow of land which will add much to the value of the property as a whole.

The people of Chefoo have given generous aid during the year. At a concert given by Mr. and Mrs. F. Curtis at their home, in which they were assisted by local talent, $215.00 were realized for the school. Messrs. Sietas & Co., Gardner & Co., and Singtai & Co. sent in goods for the sale held in the fall. This sale brought $650.00 and Swei Fu Shang, Cornabé Eckford & Co. and Dr. C. Mateer, swelled this amount by cash contributions to about $1,000.00.

Four boys have now graduated, three of whom have places as house servants, where they give great satisfaction; the fourth has returned to his home in Hangchow and expects to become a compositor at the Presbyterian Press.

Applicants for a place in the school include the nephew of a mandarin in south China and the son of a native pastor at Calgan in the north. So the usefulness of the school is extending.

Mrs. Mills plans to go home on a much needed furlough, the present year, joining her son who is now studying in Switzerland, and then visiting friends in Great Britain before crossing to the United States.

She is fortunate in being able to arrange for Mrs. Mason Wells to look after her school in her absence. We hope that when she returns she may bring an assistant with her. We expect that then the number of pupils will be largely increased; a department for girls will be opened; and Mrs. Mills may develop her plan of training teachers for other schools in various parts of the empire.—Chefoo Association News.

BOOKS, PERIODICALS, AND REPORTS.

Fifty-ninth Report of the Institution for the Deaf at Emden, Province of Hanover, Prussia, Germany.

This institution, whose Director is Mr. O. Danger, also well and favorably known as a writer on subjects relating to the education of the deaf, was founded November 1st, 1844. It is under the supervision of the Government authorities of the Province of Hanover, and is governed by a board consisting of six prominent citizens of Emden. It is maintained by the interest of various funds collected in course of time or given as legacies, and contributions from private individuals. The income during the year amounted to 30,061 mark, 16 pfennig ($7,154.55), and the expenditure to 27,555 mark, 14 pfennig ($6,558.12). The scholastic year lasted from April 21st, 1903, till March 30th, 1904. There were 31 pupils, 11 boys and 20 girls, in four classes; and—besides the Director—6 teachers, 3 gentlemen and 3 ladies. There is a small fund (founded in 1886) for furthering the industrial education of pupils who have left the institution. A feature of this Report is the effort made by Director Danger to trace the career of the pupils who left the institution during the last 20 years. He grouped them in three divisions, according to the certificates they received when leaving the institution. The first division, those who received the certificate "good," numbered 7; the second, certificate "satisfactory," 52; and the third, certificate "not entirely satisfactory, or unsatisfactory," 15. If we now glance at the career of these pupils in actual life, we find their standing somewhat different. Of the first division, 5 are still alive; one of these could not be traced at all; of the remaining 4, only 1 reached any degree of prominence, whilst 3 did not do as well as 12 from the second division. Of these 12, however, 1 would easily rank at the head of the first division; 2 pupils of the second division would now have to be classed in the third division, and 4 pupils of the third division would now rank in the second.

Chats on Literature with My Children. By A. Logan Miller, St. Aubyns, Winchester, England. Price 1 shilling net. Postage extra.

This is a delightfully written work on the subject of Literature, though in its matter it treats only of English Literature. The author, however, gives a promise that—if the work is well received—may mean other works covering the entire field of world literature. The author, Mrs. Miller, is a sister of Miss Susanna E. Hull, the well known English teacher, and one of the editors of The Teacher of the Deaf. The Teacher gives, as we believe, a very fair estimate of the work in its review of it, which we take the liberty of quoting:

"This little book has been written for young hearing children, but the language employed is so simple, the sentences are so short and easy to follow, that we feel sure it would be found helpful with deaf young people, to whom it is desired to give a first insight into English literature.

"The aim of the book is to make the names and personality of the chief English writers familiar to the children, in a bright and quaint way, that cannot fail to awaken their interest, while slight sketches or references to their most important works, stir up the desire to know more of the "Stories" here touched upon. Historical facts and allusions are so intertwined with the individual narratives, as to fix the date of the various writers on the tablet of memory with little or no effort."

The Berlin City School for Adult Deaf, (in "Review of the Schools for Adults and Industrial Schools" in the city of Berlin for 1903-1904).

Director, Dr. Gutzmann. Courses, for young men, four each, form 7 to 9 P. M: Mondays and Tuesdays, reading and German; Thursdays and Fridays, arithmetic. For young women, two courses each: reading and German, Thursdays, from 7 to 9 P. M.; arithmetic, Mondays, from 8 to 9 P. M.; needlework, etc., Mondays from 6 to 8 P. M. All instruction is gratuitous. The attendance was as follows: summer 1903, 50 men and 27 women; winter 1903-4, 52 men and 25 women.

The Teacher of the Deaf, Stoke-on-Trent, England. September, 1904.

Contents: To our Readers, by the Editors; Supplemental Registers for Teachers; Successful Essay for the Braidwood Medal, 1903, by J. A. Weaver; Analytical Chemistry; Then and Now, by Susanna E. Hull; British Bibliography (continued), by A. Farrar, Jun.; Our Study Table, Books and Periodicals; Home and Foreign Notes; School News; N. A. T. D. Annual General Meeting and Annual Report; Address by Ernest Gray, Esq.

Nordisk Tidskrift for Dofstumskolan, Nos. 6 and 7.

Nils Englund: The causes of deafness among the pupils of the Swedish Institutions for the deaf; The Question of preachers for the deaf in Sweden; A. Hansen: The Scotch Institutions for the Deaf, III; Statistics of the Swedish Institutions for the deaf for 1903-1904; Methods followed in the American Institutions for the deaf (short statistical Table); financial statement of the Nordisk Tidskrift; Miscellaneous notices.

The American Annals of the Deaf, Washington, D. C. September, 1904.

Contents: Three years of Language—III, by Mabel Ellery Adams; The Speech of the Semi-Mute, by Kate H. Fish; The Meeting of the Department of Special Education of the N. E. A., by Percival Hall; The International Congress of the Deaf, by James L. Smith; A Message to the Congress of the Deaf, by E. M. Gallaudet; The Education of the Deaf in America, by Amos G. Draper; The Industrial Problem among the American Deaf, by Olof Hanson; The Social Status of the Deaf in America, by Thomas F. Fox; The Model School for the Deaf at the St. Louis Exposition, by Percival Hall; Dr. John Jastremski, by H. Lorraine Tracy; The Instruction of Backward Deaf-Mutes, by Otto Danger; The Cure of Deafness, by Manry M. Stapler; The Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals, by Richard O. Johnson; Notices of Publications; School Items; Miscellaneous.

Report on the Institutions for the deaf in the Prussian Province of Saxony, for the scholastic year 1902-1903.

Erfurt, 8 teachers (including the Director), and 85 pupils; Halberstadt, 9 teachers, 83 pupils; Halle, 8 teachers, 87 pupils; Osterburg, 4 teachers, 45 pupils; Weissenfels, 7 teachers, 62 pupils; total, 36 teachers, 362 pupils. Population of the Province of Saxony in 1900: 2,832, 616. The Home for aged and infirm deaf at Schleusingen had 25 inmates, viz., 7 men and 18 women.

Report of the Institution for the Deaf at Venersborg, Sweden, for 1903-1904.

This institution, whose Director is the well known Prof. F. Nordin, has three divisions: one boarding school for the smaller children; one boarding school for mentally backward children; and one day school. Number of teachers (including the Director) 25. Number of pupils: first division, 55; second division, 64; third division, 64. Total, 161. Expenditure: 98,62. kroner, 24 ore ($26,430.22). Income: 101,685 kroner, 84 ore ($27,251.70).

Report of the Public School for the Deaf at Christiania, Norway, for 1903-1904.

Number of teachers (including Director), 18; number of pupils, 78; number of classes, 8—class 1 in three divisions. Course of instruction embraces: Articulation, Speech exercises, Norwegian, Lip reading, Religion, Geography, History, Natural History, Arithmetic, Writing, Drawing, Gymnastics, Shoe making, Tailoring, various industrial pursuits.

Report of the Institution for the deaf at Braunschweig (Brunswick), Germany, for the scholastic year 1903-1904, the 75th year of its existence.

Director: Mr. Gustav Schlott; number of teachers 7, viz., 4 gentlemen and 3 ladies, number of pupils (in four classes) 58, 40 boys and 18 girls. The Report gives the events of the year in the form of a diary.

THE NINTH CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf will meet in the palace of Education at the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis, October 17-20, 1904. Covering four days, regular sessions of the Conference will be held on Monday, Wednesday, and Thursday, the Tuesday intervening being given over to participation in the special feature of the Conference week, the Helen Keller Day demonstration, arrangements for which have been made by and under the direction of the Exposition authorities and a special committee by them appointed. During the week Miss Keller, her teacher, Miss Anna M. Sullivan, and her mother, Mrs. Kate A. Keller, will be the specially invited guests of the Fair, and a general invitation has been extended by the authorities to all deaf-blind pupils to attend.

The Conference, taking on the nature of an International Congress of Heads of Schools for the Deaf, will be attended by foreign representatives who come to learn of us and from whom we in turn can learn much that will be of value to ourselves. Among them will be Madam Elizabeth Anrep Nordin, Principal of the first school abroad for the blind-deaf, the Skolhemmets for Blinda Dofstumme, Venersborg, Sweden, which was established by H. R. H. the Queen, and is supported by the government. This school, now numbering several pupils, was opened in 1882 with one pupil in attendance and with Madam Nordin as the teacher. She now visits our country under the auspices of her government, and having been invited to attend and participate in our proceedings, will, no doubt, be pleased to present an interesting and instructive paper upon the subject of the care and instruction of the deaf-blind and concerning our work generally.

All questions pertaining to the intellectual, moral, religious, and industrial training of the deaf and the blind-deaf will be general subjects for discussion at the Conference, and especially

to be mentioned are questions along practical lines relating to management, matters of legislation, salaries and wages, courses of study literary and industrial, higher education in our State Schools, our relation to the College, the advantages and disadvantages of day-schools and their supervision and relation to the State School, post-graduate courses, and many other subjects constantly brought to a Superintendent's attention.

It is hoped and believed that nearly all of the schools will be represented at this Conference, for at the time of its meeting the various school-terms will be well under way and everything in good running order, thus allowing the heads of schools to get away for a brief period; and it is urged that, wherever possible, they be accompanied by members of boards of management, State officials, friends, and others who are interested in the deaf, all of whom are eligible for honorary membership and speech; for a widened view of our work on their part and acquaintance with the membership of the profession will most certainly result in good for the cause.

The month of October is said to be the most pleasant one of the year in St. Louis, the weather at that time will be delightful for travel, the Exposition will be at its best, and an interesting programme will be given by the Model Schools for the Deaf during the time of the meeting. Conditions will be perfect for both an instructive and pleasurable week, and it is hoped that every Superintendent and Principal will certainly be present.

The sessions of the Conference will be held probably during the morning hours, thus allowing the afternoons and evenings to be devoted to the Fair. About October 1st, a circular letter will probably be issued concerning the Conference, the International feature thereof, Helen Keller Day, headquarters, places for accommodation in hotels and private homes, etc., etc. In this connection, the undersigned would be pleased to receive at once some word from heads of schools and others interested as to the probability of their attendance or non-attendance at the Conference.

For the executive Committee.

RICHARD O. JOHNSON,
Chairman.

INDIANAPOLIS, August 24, 1904.

EDITORIAL COMMENT.

SPELLING IN CHAPEL.

The recent innovation in the Utah School whereby manual spelling has been substituted for the sign-language in the conduct of the chapel services, has given rise to a general and we believe a not unprofitable discussion. We reproduce elsewhere in our Institution Press Department all that the Utah School paper has to say upon the subject, together with comments upon the move from one to two other papers. Our own feeling in the matter is, that the Utah School management has taken a long step forward in this innovation, and one moreover that will justify itself in results more and more as the days, months, and years go by. Nor do we say this in the light of any theories that we have held, or that we now hold, upon the subject of methods, but because of conviction founded on our experience as a teacher using for many years the sign-language method, and in later years the manual alphabet or spelling method, an experience that left no question in our mind of the superiority of the latter over the former in the accomplishment of all the aims and purposes of the school.

All this aside from questions of speech-teaching and lip-reading: they come into the problem, of course, but incidentally, and to be affected by, rather than to affect, the present question. The point is in Utah, to have more English and better English, together with higher and larger educational accomplishment. These results we believe to be possible, and we look for the demonstration of their possibility in the test now in progress. We take it that English in chapel means English everywhere, spoken or spelled, throughout the school, and at all times and upon all occasions, for, with the chapel standard a high one, the

practice will scarcely fall below it elsewhere in the school-rooms, dining hall, workshops, etc. And here will be the great gain, for not only will there be gain in the quantity sense in the effective work of the school in its sum total, but even more than that in its value will be the gain that will come in the unifying of the school's work and the bringing of it, in all its parts and separate interests, into a smoothly working harmony. A common language basis makes this unifying result possible and the natural outcome. And here is where the speech-teaching work of the school will be benefited and strengthened.

There is probably no one thing in a school that hinders the best success of oral instruction more than a tolerance and use of signs for purposes of communication and instruction: it is the use of an easy language, but a totally foreign language, in competition and rivalry with a very difficult one, and the rivalry is as unfair as it is unnecessary. On the other hand, the use of spelling is the use also of an easy language in rivalry with the difficult one, but it is the use of the same language in its essence, hence it is a rivalry wholly friendly, and, it may well be hoped, as helpful to speech work, all things considered, as the sign-language is harmful.

Not that we favor spelling in an oral school, or in an oral class, for we do not, but in a combined school, employing, for a part of its pupils all of the time, and for all of its pupils part of the time—namely, in chapel services—silent methods of instruction, we favor the spelling method now in use in the Utah School. For while the sign-language is destructive in all its tendencies toward and all its effects upon the speech work of a school, to no form of the English language, in symbolizing it, can that charge be laid. Spelling is constructive in all its tendencies and effects, never destructive, and its only fault in its relation to speech is, it is a too convenient substitute and in its use it lessens practice in speech and the reading of speech. Were it not for this fault, spelling would be no worse than writing, both would be good, and properly restricted both could be used to the same end to supplement and re-enforce the oral work of the school. We await further development and testimony from Utah.

F. W. B.

THE ST. LOUIS CONVENTIONS OF THE DEAF.

During the week beginning July 20th, The International Congress of the Deaf, The National Association of the Deaf, and The Gallaudet College Alumni Association held conventions in St. Louis, the two former in the Hall of Congresses of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition and the last named in the Auditorium of the High School. There were also religious meetings at which officiated the pastors and missionaries of the various churches that minister to the Deaf, and numerous social entertainments. On all these occasions, the proceedings were of a character to reflect credit upon the Deaf of the country and upon the schools in which they received their education. The arrangements for the meetings, the manner in which they were conducted, the character of the papers read and of the extempore speeches all bear testimony to the executive ability and to the intelligence and education of those participating. The intellectual, social, and moral status of the deaf of this and other countries was discussed in language that was the more vigorous for the dignity and restraint with which the speakers expressed themselves. There was an absence of the incoherent utterances and abusive terms that have marred the proceedings of some former meetings of the Deaf and tended to bring such affairs into disrepute. This is our general impression from the reports so far published, and while we are far from agreeing with much of what was said, we believe that the gentlemen who acted as spokesmen for the Deaf have won for themselves and for the class the right to be heard in matters affecting their welfare, and that, whether or not correct, the conclusions arrived at in these conventions will carry more weight and exert a greater influence than those of any held in the past. S. G. D.

Our American schools were honored in the visit paid a number of them, in June last, by Miss Jenny Griff, a teacher in the Trondhjem, Norway, school for the deaf. Miss Griff is a keen observer, and, with large experience in the work, is a competent critic. We may therefore expect a report from her that will be both interesting and valuable.

A CHANGE IN CHICAGO.

Meagre information reaches us of an important and probably a far-reaching change recently made in Chicago by the Board of Education, in the plan of control of its public schools for the deaf, involving with the rest the absorption into the general school system of the McCowen Oral School, heretofore a private institution. The few facts at hand are covered in the following from a Chicago paper:

"The establishment of a department at the Normal School for the Oral teaching of the deaf was ordered yesterday by the school management committee. At the same time the office of supervisor of the public schools for the deaf, which has been in existence for over twenty years, was abolished, the work of that office being delegated to the head of the department in the Normal School. This change was made as a result of the absorption of the McCowen Oral School for the Deaf by the board of education.

"Miss Mary McCowen, founder of this school, and for years supervisor of the public schools for the deaf, was elected head of the newly created normal school department at an annual salary of $2,500. Miss Cornelia D. Bingham was elected her assistant at a salary of $2,000."

NOTES.

The exhibition given by the Model School for the Deaf at the St. Louis Exposition, is pronounced by those competent to pass upon it as being without doubt the most successful exhibit in the Education Building, and one of the most attractive of the Exposition. Seven states have sent or will send classes to the Model School, namely, Nebraska, Missouri, Ohio, Kansas, Illinois, Colorado, and Utah.

In addition to these schools constantly in session in the Education Building, a class from the McCowen Oral School is located in the Electricity Building, and besides illustrating regular school work the class is used for practice and illustrative purposes in the exhibition being made of the Hutchinson acousticon and instructicon.

The information coming to us from several sources of the success of the vacation training classes carried on the past summer at Northampton and Boston, is most gratifying. For the good of the rapidly growing oral work of the country, we feel the conviction strongly that there can not be too much of this supplementary training given to teachers already possessed of a measure of training and experience. It is this class of teachers, with minds prepared and understanding quickened by previous work and study, that can secure the maximum of profit to themselves and to the work, in the brief term that these vacation schools continue in session. We sincerely hope that future summers will give us more of this kind of training work, and that it will be so conditioned in its privileges that those most capable of profiting by it—thus bringing the greatest sum total of profit to the work at large—shall have the fullest opportunity of availing themselves of its benefits.

The Louisiana Institution at Baton Rouge is to be congratulated upon securing as its superintendent, to succeed the late Dr. John Jastremski, a man so competent and well-fitted by experience for the position as Mr. S. T. Walker. Mr. Walker began his career as a teacher in the Illinois Institution; then held the superintendency of the Colorado school and of the Kansas school, each for a short time; then taught successively in the Pennsylvania and the Hartford schools; he was then called to the superintendency of the Kansas school, and later of the Illinois school. After some years in business life, he enters upon professional work again, and we may hope it may hold him through the remaining years of his strength and usefulness.

Our profession was honored at the St. Louis Exposition by the appointment upon the International Jury of Awards in the Department of Education, as members, of Mr. J. W. Jones of the Ohio Institution, Mr. R. O. Johnson of the Indiana School, and Prof. Percival Hall of Gallaudet College. This jury was composed of one hundred representative educators of the country and it was in service from the first to the fifteenth of September.

The appointment of Miss Mary E. Smith as principal in charge of the Beverly, Mass., School, to succeed the late Miss Swett, secures in the position a teacher of ability and large experience. Miss Smith has been for many years connected with the Mt. Airy School as a teacher in the manual alphabet department.

OBITUARY.

George Ludington Weed, D. D., died at his home in Mt. Airy, on September 22, at the age of 76 years. Dr. Weed was well known to the older members of the profession as an able teacher and a scholarly man. He was born in Arkansas, his parents being at the time of his birth engaged in the home missionary field. Of a deeply religious nature, he was early inclined to the ministry, but after entering upon his theological course his eyes failed him and he was compelled to give up study. After some time spent in travel in the Holy Land, he took up the work of the instruction of the deaf in the Ohio School at Columbus. He was superintendent of this school for a brief term, and later superintendent of the Wisconsin School at Delware, also for a short time. In 1875 he entered upon his final work as a teacher of the deaf in the Pennsylvania Institution at Philadelphia, continuing his connection with the school until his retirement in 1894. As a teacher, Dr. Weed showed exceptional, and it may be said peculiar, ability, for his methods were in many respects unusual and decidedly ingenious. An illustration of his method may be noted in his rule—almost an invariable one with him—of spending no time in correcting slates or working over individual mistakes of his pupils. His plan was to seek out from the writings of his pupils the mistakes which for the time being he found to be habitual and common among them, then to set himself the task of preparing exercises for working out or drilling out these mistakes, until the pupils had entirely ceased to make them, having adopted the correct forms in their place. These exercises were so systematized and recorded in the pupils' note-books, that any one of them could be reviewed upon the instant in case of need, and thus there were large economies of time conserved by the

method, with a resulting rapid advancement of the pupils toward the mastery of written language. His interest in the religious welfare of his pupils led him to give special attention to the preparation of the Sunday lessons for his classes, and in recognition of a general need for it in schools for the deaf, he wrote and published at his own expense a book of lessons for deaf children, to which he gave the title "Great Truths Simply Told." A remarkable fact in connection with this work is, that it has come into large use in the mission fields in heathen lands as being, in the simplicity of its style and in the thought and arrangement of its subject matter, peculiarly adapted to meet the needs of mission workers. This book was followed by the publication of others of the same general character, and we understand there is in existence a manuscript of a yet unpublished work. Dr. Weed was for many years one of the regular Sunday lecturers at Girard College in Philadelphia, the institution that, by the will of its founder, permits no ordained minister to enter its doors. In this connection the fact may be referred to that Dr. Weed is said to be the only layman upon whom the doctorate degree of divinity has ever been conferred.

Rev. Dr. Joseph A. Seiss, pastor of the Lutheran Church of the Holy Communion, died at his home in Philadelphia, on June 20, aged eighty-one. Dr. Seiss was a member of the Board of Directors of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Deaf and Dumb for twenty-three years, being at the time of his death Vice-President of the Board. In all the years of his connection with the school, Dr. Seiss took a large interest in its affairs and was active in the performance of his official duties close up to the end of his life. It will always be remembered of Dr. Seiss, the active part that he took in the establishment of the Oral Branch of the Pennsylvania Institution, and the friendly interest that he ever showed in the progress of the oral method and its growth until it reached its present position of dominance in the work of the school. His interest in the deaf led him to give exhaustive study to all subjects relating to deafness, and to educational and social problems whose solution might bring alleviation to the class. A portion of the fruits of the study are left us in a volume published by Dr. Seiss some seventeen years ago, entitled "Children of Silence," a work that attests at once his fine ability and his deep interest in the subject with which it deals.

Ella S. Dawson, a teacher since 1890 in the Pennsylvania Institution, died on the morning of September 29. Miss Dawson

had been removed the day before her death to the German hospital in Philadelphia for the purpose of undergoing an operation, but death came before the time set for it. Miss Dawson during her long residence in the school, by her genial nature and her sympathetic, kindly, and helpful disposition, had made herself generally beloved and her taking away is mourned by all. Her experience and success as a teacher had brought her recent promotion in the work of the school, and the loss of her services at this time is therefore the greater and the more keenly felt.

Kate S. Landis, a teacher in the Pennsylvania Institution at Mt. Airy, died at her home in Philadelphia, on July 28. Her death was the result of complications following an operation for cancer. Miss Landis had been connected with the Pennsylvania Institution for nineteen years, in the earlier years as a manual teacher, but latterly teaching orally. It can be said of her that she was, under both methods, a teacher of more than usual ability, and the successive classes that passed through her hands were invariably materially advanced by her instruction. She was systematic and energetic, and had a peculiar faulty of adapting means to ends which at times was manifest in devices that were decidedly ingenious. Entering her class-room one was struck with the exercises and charts appearing on the slates and walls, illustrating and enforcing the special language forms that she happened then to be working upon. She was always much beloved by her pupils, and her loss to the school is a great one.

Dr. John Jastremski, for twenty-one years at the head of the Louisiana School for the Deaf at Baton Rouge, died on July 5. He was a native of France but spent the greater part of his life in this country. Dr. Jastremski was not an attendant upon conferences and conventions of teachers, hence he was not personally known to many in the profession, but it is said of him that he stood high in the esteem of the community of his home and that he was loved by the deaf of Louisiana as a father. The Legislature of Louisiana being in session at the time, adjourned as a mark of respect to his memory.

Maria L. Wardroper, a valued teacher of the Danville, Kentucky, School, died September 2, at the home of her sister, in Wilkinsburg, Penn. Miss Wardroper began her work of teaching in the Arkansas School, going thence to Danville. Her work is spoken of as unusually successful, both in the class room and in the training that she gave to teachers, many of whom are now demonstrating her understanding of the principles of oral teaching by their own success in the work. F. W. B.

NEW MEMBERS.

The following named persons have been elected to membership in the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf by vote of the Board of Directors. The list includes those elected since the last report:

Ahlberg, Anna, School for the Deaf, Stockholm, Sweden.
Apeline, F., Halmstad, Sweden.
Avery, Elizabeth B., School for the Deaf, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Bell, Martha C., School for the Deaf, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Bodenhorn, Elise, Allen's Lane, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Connor, Nellie O., Margaretville, New York.
Dimmick, Ella J., School for the Deaf, Edgewood Park, Pa.
Doneghy, Annie M., School for the Deaf, Danville, Ky.
Duff, Jessie, 428 N. McLean St., Lincoln, Ill.
Fairbanks, Dr. Arthur W., 362 Commonwealth Ave., Boston, Mass.
Fish, William B., 364 Russell Ave., Cleveland, Ohio.
Flodin, A. G., School for the Deaf, Lund, Sweden.
Friden, S., School for the Deaf, Vexio, Sweden.
Fullington, Angeline B., School for the Deaf, Edgewood Park, Pa.
Grundberg, Dr. L., Venersborg, Sweden.
Gruver, Cora E., School for the Deaf, Mt. Airy, Philadelphia, Pa.
Hagstrom, A. J., School for the Deaf, Hernosand, Sweden.
Haudering, M., School for the Deaf, Guben, Germany.
Humbert, I. S., School for the Deaf, Little Rock, Ark.
Kribs, H. Ray, 1900 H St., Sacramento, Cal.
Lillard, Sadie, School for the Deaf, St. Augustine, Florida.
Lippestad, J. A., Thorohang Institut, Christiania, Norway.
Locke, C., School for tht Deaf, Trondhjem, Norway.
MacFarlane, Etta, 316 S. Warren Ave., Saginaw, Mich.
Morris, Mabel M., School for the Deaf, Salem, Oregon.
Prawitz, J., School for the Deaf, Gefle, Sweden.
Rao, M. Srinivas, Hon. Sec'y of D. & B. School for the Deaf, Chamrajapuram, Mysore, India.
Riedle, Anna M., Wilmington, Ohio.
Robertson, Mrs. J. Harry, 50 Elliott Row, St. John, N. B.
Robertson, Col. J. R., Jacksonville, Ill.
Satterly, Cora B., Mondamin, Iowa.
Shaw, Mrs. Caroline, 50 Fifteenth St., Detroit, Mich.
Sister M. de Sales, St, Michael's Convent, San Juan, Porto Rico.
Sloan, Elisa, School for the Deaf, Romney, W. Va.
Stevenson, Elizabeth, School for the Deaf, Dundee, Ill.
Story, A. J. Blind and Deaf School, Stoke-on-Trent, England.
Stout, Anna Belle, School for the Deaf, W. Saratoga St., Baltimore, Md.
Tansley, Rachel C., 5335 Germantown Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.
Thew, Jessie L., 1715 N. Sixth St., Sheboygan, Wis.
Ulfsparrs, S., School for the Deaf, Karlskrona, Sweden.
Waugh, Margaret C., School for the Deaf, Govan, Scotland.

Teachers wishing positions and Superintendents wishing teachers may avail themselves of the office of the General Secretary of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf so far as it may be of service to them. The General Secretary aims to keep a list of teachers, and one of Superintendents, belonging to the above classes, ready for use by any person who may write for them.

The Association Review is a publication of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf. It is sent free to Active Members of the Association. Active membership is obtained upon payment to the Treasurer of the membership fee of two dollars ($2), or its equivalent in foreign currency—8s. 4d. in English money; 8m. 2pfg. in German money; 10fr. 2c. in French money; 7 kr. 50 ore. in Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish money; and 10l. 2c. in Italian money. Postal money orders should be drawn on Philadelphia, in favor of F. W. Booth.

Reprints in pamphlet form of the papers on "Formation and Development of Elementary English Sounds," by Caroline A. Yale, may be obtained by addressing the office of the General Secretary. Price for single copies, 25 cents.

Reprints in pamphlet form of "My List of Homophenous Words," by Emma Snow, may be obtained through the office of the General Secretary. Price for single copies, 25 cents.

Positions Wanted.

By a manual teacher, with five years' experience in a school for the deaf and previous experience in hearing schools. Good reference. Address Miss Cora B. Satterlee, Mondamin, Iowa.

By an instructor in carpenter work and sloyd, with considerable experience in teaching in a school for the deaf. For further information, address the editor of the Review.

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SPEECH DEFECTS IN THEIR RELATION TO ABNORMAL CONDITIONS OF THE BRAIN IN THE CHILD.[1]

ARTHUR WILLARD FAIRBANKS, M. D., BOSTON, MASS.

The infant newly born is, to all intents and purposes, mentally an imbecile. Knowing nothing by virtue of experience, having certain instinctive desires, inherent in all animals, it lives and breathes, it exists, but it does not think. Its intellectual development must be the result of experience, experience gained through certain functions with which it is endowed at birth, if it is a normal child; and through which it must make its acquaintance with the external world about it.

Through these endowed faculties, the senses in other words, it is to receive numberless impressions of its surroundings, which, meaningless at first, it must learn to interpret, and by which it must determine its actions as life goes on. Through the long months preceding birth, the brain is called upon to perform certain perfunctory acts of more or less automatic nature. It must exercise control over certain physiological functions, necessary to life itself. It must direct the building up of the structure over which it is later to have intellectual sway. It responds to these demands upon it, and independent of all the senses, guides the forces of unconscious life. But with the birth all this is changed. Contact with the external world through the senses of touch, of

[1]Lecture delivered in the special course on "The Mechanism of Speech, The Correction of Defective Speech, and Speech Development and Voice Training for Deaf Children," given by Mrs. Sarah Jordan Monro, special teacher of speech, Horace Mann School for the Deaf, Boston; July, 1904.

sight, of hearing, of taste and of smell begins. And through these agents is conveyed to the primitive brain impressions which it must receive, interpret, and store away for future use. First comes the reception, which through frequent repetition, leads to correct interpretation. Interpretation confirmed by frequent experience, leads to the reservation of the knowledge thus gained for utilization on some subsequent occasion in the outward expression of the facts, or for the emission of an original thought, based on the knowledge learned. This process of reception, interpretation and utilization should be carefully kept in mind, for anything occurring to disturb any one or all of these factors may lead to interruption in the normal development of the human being.

Naturally, the growth of the brain is but gradual, the result of numberless repetitions of sensory impulses coming from the outer world, and the advance seems very slow. The function of the infant brain, apart from that more or less automatic action already alluded to, is, during the first weeks and months of life, receptive and interpretive, not productive or emmissive to any extent. The instrument of thought is being constructed. Not until later does it become original and productive. Yet so intimate is the connection of the different parts of this instrument, and so delicate its construction, that interference with the development of any portion, or the destruction of any part, inevitably affects the working of the organ as a whole, and we shall find that interference with its growth, or destruction of any part in the early stages of its development, has its effect on functions yet unborn, and the function of speech, in which we are interested, is no exception to the rule.

So intimately dependent is this function upon the integrity of the brain, and so important is it as an agent for the outward expression of intellectual activity, that any interference with the early development of the brain, is exceedingly likely to result later in defective development of speech. Not only is the function of speech often affected when the development of the brain is deficient, but we shall see that in later years, when speech has been fully acquired, it may be totally lost, or greatly impaired, by injury or disease of the brain.

The function of speech has, literally interpreted, three modes of expression, the pantomimic, by means of gestures, the articulate, and the graphic. Of these, but one concerns us at the present time, and this is articulate speech.

It is, however, the principle of the subject of the disturbance of the function of speech by abnormal conditions in the brain that I wish to have you understand, and I am therefore going to consider the function of writing also.

In the development and preservation of speech, much depends upon the condition of the senses, particularly that of hearing, and especially is this true of the *development* of the function. In the early days of developing speech, when the process is entirely a matter of mimicry, the cutting off, through disease or injury, of the sense of hearing, deprives the receptive centre of the impulses upon which the brain is accustomed to depend, in learning how to reproduce the impressions received. If speech is *undeveloped*, it does not develop, or if but slightly developed, and before endless repetition has made enduring impress, the brain forgets in the absence of its guide, the hearing, how to reproduce the sounds formerly heard, and dumbness is the result.

The recognition of the close interdependence of the senses, and the functions founded on these senses, upon one another; and the dependence of the action of the brain as a whole on the integrity and cooperation of the different parts, is one of the most essential features in the proper understanding of the relation of abnormal conditions of the brain to speech defects. The senses are not alone of influence on the development of speech. Since intelligent speech is an outward expression of intellectual activity, anything that occurs to impair the action of that part of the brain which is the seat of the intelligence, may seriously compromise the function of speech. Thus we see that not alone will a disturbance of the senses affect the function of speech, but that a disturbance in the intelligence may also be a cause.

We shall now find a third cause, and that is an injury to that portion of the brain that has to do with the movement of the vocal chords, the palate, tongue, and lips, in the act of articulate speech. Strictly speaking, here should also be included the parts of the brain governing the movements employed in writing and in

pantomime, the two other and non-articulate forms of speech.

Whenever we have several muscles or groups of muscles, working together to produce a definite desired result, such result implying often the action together of muscles that are usually antagonistic to each other, we have introduced into the act the suggestion of a new and special sense. In order that these muscles may cooperate with each other, each one or each group acting its required part, none too little, none too much, we are obliged to assume a centre in the brain or spinal cord, possessing an accurate sense of the degree of action of each and every muscle necessary to produce the complete and desired result. To this united and intelligent action of muscles, the term coordination is applied.

All purposive muscular movement, including also of course that of speech, depends upon this coordinate muscular action. Indeed the act of articulate speech is one of the most intricate and complicated examples of coordinate muscular action of which we know. And we shall not be surprised to learn that any factor that interferes with this cooperative action of the muscles, may also seriously interfere with the production of speech itself, even though the *intellect,* the *senses,* and the *motor power* are not impaired. To recapitulate therefore, for the purpose of emphasis: The lesions of the central nervous system, producing disorders of speech are: First: injury to the intellectual centres of the brain. Second: injury to those sensory memory centres such as hearing and sight, on which speech so greatly depends. Third: injury to the motor centres which produce the muscular movements necessary for speech. Fourth: injury to the centre presiding over coordinate muscular action. Fifth: since all these centres are in intimate connection with one another by means of connecting nerve tracts, and constantly act together in bringing about the function of intelligent speech, it is obvious that injury *to these connecting nerve tracts themselves,* by preventing harmonious interaction of these centres, may interfere with the production of speech. Let us now consider some of the circumstances that may give rise to the conditions mentioned. There are two classes of brain defects, which may give rise to disorder of the function which we are studying: one is the inherited defect, the

peculiarity of structure or function transmitted from the parent to the offspring; the other is the acquired defect, resulting from injury or disease. In the inherited defect of speech, it is usually possible to determine its hereditary nature by the recognition of some similar defect in the parent, or in the absence of such defect in either parent, by the discovery in the child or in its brothers or sisters, of some marked defect of anatomical structure, widely at variance with the normal type—the so-called stigma or stigmata of degeneration. In the absence of any such anatomical defect in the children, the presence of such in either parent, is fair presumptive evidence of the hereditary origin of the speech defect. Such visible evidence, is, however, sometimes lacking, and in such instances in the absence of any history or trace of injury or disease, we are obliged to assume the existence of some latent defect in mental structure or function of hereditary nature.

We will first proceed to the consideration of the *acquired* injuries and disease of the nervous mechanism of speech, that lead to defects in the speech function, and conclude with the consideration of conditions of an hereditary nature, and mention some of the signs by which they are recognized.

During the life of the child in utero, owing to the extreme care with which nature protects the human embryo, there are but few injuries from without that can injure the brain of the child, without sacrificing the mother's life, and hence the life of the child as well. The liability to what we may perhaps term physiological accidents within the body of the child itself, and the possibility of disease of the brain in utero, is somewhat greater than the likelihood of external injury, but even in this respect, the child is so carefully protected, that provided it is endowed by the parent with the capacity for normal development, the chances for such uninterrupted development are most excellent up to the time when nature demands that it make its way to the outer world.

During its life in utero, there are certain conditions in the mother which may seriously affect the general growth of the child *as a whole*, and consequently the development of the brain as a part. If the nutrition of the mother is poor, or if she suffers

from chronic wasting disease, or from acute febrile disease of severe character, the development of the child is jeopardized, partly from deficient nutrition, and partly from the effect of the poisonous products of the disease; or in rare instances, it may itself suffer from the disease from which the mother is suffering. Such a child may be born with a brain incapable of assuming successfully the role it is expected to assume in the manifold functions of life, and the function of speech, as one of the most complex of these functions, suffers proportionately.

Local disease of the brain and its coverings may, however, occur, even in utero, and lead to defect of development of the brain as a whole, or to special injury of some part. If such injury is done by the disease, to any one of the several parts having to do with the function of speech, this injury will appear after birth in the shape of defective or delayed development of speech. That is, if injury is done to the intellectual centres or to the sensory centres for the reception of impulses of importance to the function of speech, or to the organs concerned in the transmission of such impulses, or to the centre presiding over the motor power of speech and the organs concerned in its production, some disturbance or deficiency of speech will result.

Such injury may be produced by inflammatory processes, by hemorrhage from the blood-vessels, or from obstruction of the latter by blood clots. The process will be described more fully in a few moments. These injuries to the brain, and parts adjacent, are divided for purpose of convenience, into those that occur *before* birth, those occurring *during* birth, and such as take place *subsequent* to birth.

Nearly immune as is the child previous to its birth, from the dangers surrounding the child in the outer world, very different are the conditions to which it is subjected and the dangers to which it is exposed during its birth. The skull of the infant at birth is not the firm unyielding encasement which we find surrounding the brain in later years, but a yielding, more or less pliable covering, in places little more than a parchment-like membrane. Hence, any undue excess of pressure, or too long duration of compression, is extremely likely to either directly injure the brain, or what is more common, to rupture some of

the many blood-vessels covering the surface or distributed through the substance of the brain.

This hemorrhage may produce harm in several different ways, any one of which, or all, may be a factor in a given case. The blood may by its pressure alone injure the brain, or it may by its presence set up an inflammation of the parts with which it is in contact, and in this way destroy some of the brain substance, or it may, by virtue of certain inflammatory processes, give rise to the formation of scar tissue, which, as time goes on, grows and contracts, and thus destroys portions of the brain. Sometimes a cyst, a tumor filled with water, forms in the site of such a hemorrhage, and by its growth, presses on the surrounding brain. More rarely, an abscess may form in a similar way. So that there are many ways by which serious disturbance in the function of the brain may result directly or indirectly, from injury done at birth.

Births in which instrumental aid becomes necessary are often followed by symptoms of injury to the brain. Births of long duration, or those whose occurrence is premature, or births in which the position of the child is abnormal, or the size of the head unusually large, are all likely to be accompanied by undue compression of the skull, and therefore by possible injury to the brain. Many of these cases exhibit later in childhood, varying degrees of mental deficiency. They are slow to creep, or to hold the head up, or to sit up alone, and do not walk until the end of the second year or later. They either do not talk at all until the third or fourth year, or they learn towards the eighteenth or twentieth month two or three simple words, and advance no further, or they slowly learn to speak, but with defects of utterance more or less marked. Such children if they finally learn to construct simple sentences, prolong their baby accent far into late childhood.

Mechanical injury is directly or indirectly responsible for most of these abnormal conditions of the brain that have their starting point at birth.

The third class of injuries are those that take place subsequent to birth. By far the most frequent source of injury in the first four or five years of the child's life, is inflammation of the

brain or its coverings. At this time, however, hemorrhage or the clotting of blood in the blood-vessels may also occur, but it is usually later in childhood, and in adult life, that these factors more frequently prevail, chiefly because they are usually secondary to other disease which requires some time for its development. We must bear in mind, however, that we cannot invariably assert in a given case, just when the injury may have occurred, judging from the effects of the injury on the speech alone. By a consideration of other circumstances and symptoms of the case however, we can usually form a fairly accurate estimation of the time of occurrence and nature of the injury. We must also bear in mind that, in some cases, we may not obtain the effects of the injury until a considerable period after the injury is caused. Therefore, certain instances of apparently recent origin, judging from the time of appearance of the deficiency, may in reality date back to some old and unsuspected injury in the previous existence of the child; that is, at any time from the earliest inception of prenatal life. Let us now consider a few features of the anatomical construction of the brain, and then we shall be able to understand why the mentioned injuries create such havoc in the function of the organ.

If we look at the surface of the normal brain, we see that it is crossed in every direction by depressions in its surface, which more or less irregularly divide the surface into different parts. These linear depressions form a guide by which we are able to map out the surface of the brain into certain areas, for the purpose of special study.

The brain is divided laterally into halves. Each half is, for convenience of study, subdivided into lobes, and the folds of brain matter between the furrows or depressions receive the name of "convolutions," and are named usually by number, according to the lobe in which they are found.

We have here a representation of the left hemisphere of the brain.

This is subdivided into the frontal, the parietal, the temporal, and the occipital lobes. The convolutions are, first, second, and third frontal; the ascending frontal; the ascending parietal; the superior parietal; the supramarginal and angular convolutions;

the first, second, and third temporal; the first, second, and third occipital convolution.

Some of these as you see are well defined, others are more or less arbitrary divisions. They are all exceedingly convenient, however, in outlining and defining the regions of the surface or

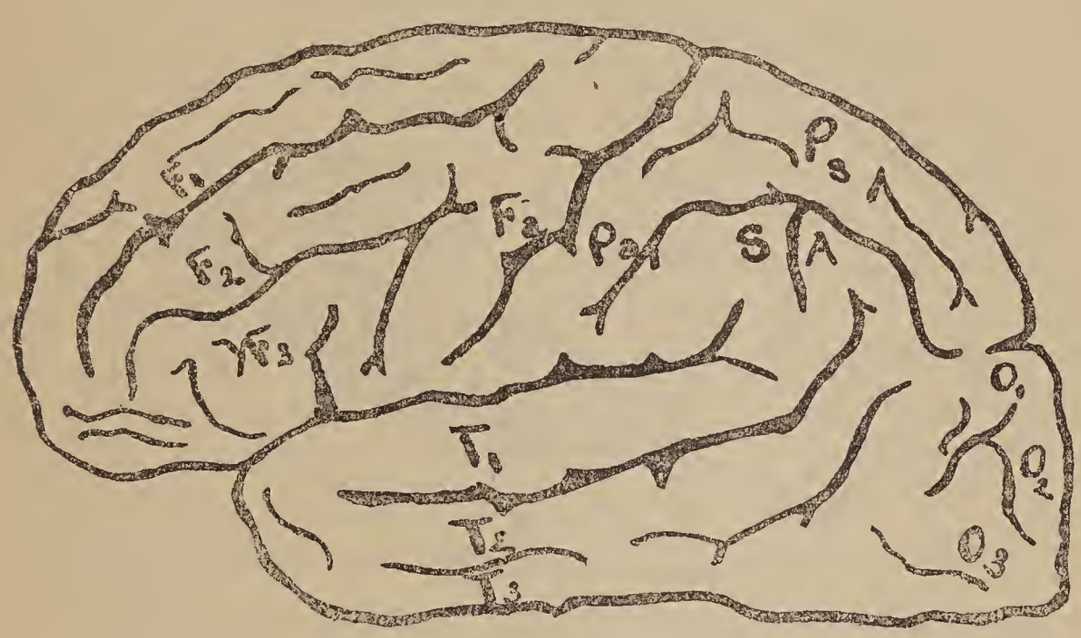


DIAGRAM OF BRAIN NO. 1. LEFT HEMISPHERE,
showing the convolutions of the cortex.

"cortex" of the brain as it is termed. It has been found that certain areas are especially associated with the function of speech, and these regions are fairly well defined.

We have seen that speech depends upon uninterrupted and harmonious interaction of several different faculties.

First, if it is to be articulate speech, the infant must receive from the outer world those sounds that make up the language that is to be acquired. There must be, therefore, a centre in the brain to receive and preserve the impulses of sound brought to it by the hearing apparatus. This is the region in which are stored up the *auditory speech memories.* This region is located in the area marked "H," in diagram No. 2, occupying the posterior two-thirds of the first temporal convolution. Second, if it is to be written speech, the visual impulses of written or printed speech are received and stored up in the area marked "V." This is the centre for *visual images* of *written or printed speech.*

These comprise the sensory apparatus of speech. The mere reception of these sensory impressions is not sufficient if they are to be of value to the recipient. They must be interpreted by the intellect, and when so interpreted, they may be stored up for intelligent use.

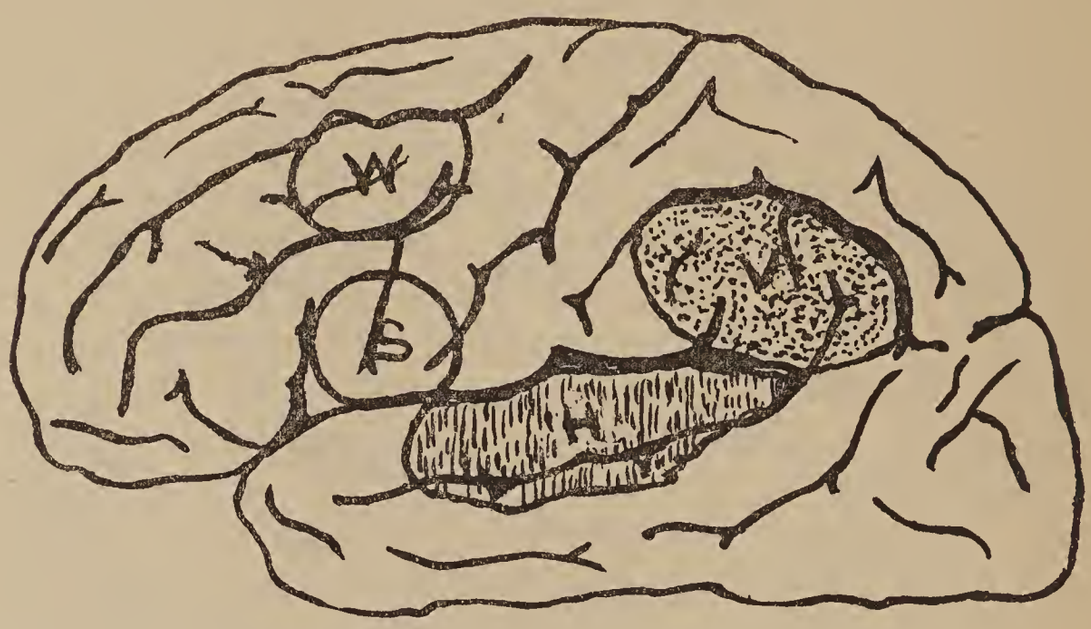


DIAGRAM OF BRAIN NO. 2. LEFT HEMISPHERE, showing approximate location of the cortical speech-centres.

The intelligence must be capable of being concentrated on these inflowing sensory impressions, in order that they may be correctly interpreted and orderly arranged for future utilization. The employment of these sensory speech memories is, in the main at least, through motor impulses that produce articulate or written speech.

In the region of the brain marked "W," the memories of the *movements required in writing* are stored. This is in the posterior portion of the second frontal convolution. At "S," in the posterior portion of the third frontal, in the lower portion of the ascending frontal, and a small portion of the ascending parietal convolution, is the centre where the memories of the *movements for articulate speech* are located. We have here to bear in mind the singular fact that these memories of the speech movements are only developed on one side of the brain, namely the left. Here alone is the location of the motor memories of the complex forms of speech. The other side of the brain exactly correspond-

ing in outward appearance, is undeveloped in this respect, and if an injury occurs in this area on the right side of the brain, speech is not affected. In other words, the education of the brain in this part of the speech function is one-sided. This is true in the great majority of individuals. In left handed persons, however, the conditions are reversed, and the centre for motor speech is on the right. In the ordinary individual, the capacity of the right brain to take over the duties of speech in an emergency, is almost nil, but differs within varying limits in different cases. Nevertheless, while it cannot immediately assume the function of the other side, it may, in the young, be educated, to a certain degree at least, to act for the destroyed centre of the other side. On the integrity of these centres of speech, and of the nerve tracts connecting them with each other, and with the muscles of the hand, mouth and larynx, the function of speech depends. And that it may be intelligent speech, the intellect must preside over and govern all; the reception of the sensory impulses of sight and hearing, as well as the emission of the motor impulses of written and spoken speech.

It is impossible to assign any one definitely localized area of the brain as the centre of the intellect. In general it may be said, however, that the front half of the brain, that portion that we know as the frontal lobe, as a whole has more to do with these processes, that we regard as the intellectual, than the other, or posterior half. If, in the early days of the formation of the brain, previous to birth, anything occurs to interfere with the proper development of the brain as a whole, or of this part in particular, the future intelligence of the child will suffer. If later in the ante-natal life, or what is far more likely, during birth itself, the now well formed brain receives an injury, so that the brain tissue is destroyed by the injury itself, or by the hemorrhage that occurs, or by the resulting inflammation, the intellectual capacity of the brain suffers. The same thing may occur from similar occurrences in the years of childhood following birth.

The most common causes at this period as we have stated, are the inflammation of the brain substance, or the shutting off of the circulation by a clot of blood in the blood-vessels. If the

destruction of the brain substance takes place before the function of speech is developed, the effect is the same as if the intellectual injury were done previous to birth. If it occurs after something has been done in the way of acquiring the speech faculty, the faculty is usually present, but is not intelligently employed. It is not very uncommon to have the power of intelligent speech lost, or greatly diminished after a meningitis. This is usually due to the occurrence at some time during the meningitis of an inflammation of the brain substance itself, the meningitis being an inflammation of the *coverings* of the brain. In these cases the speech centres, proper, may be injured directly, and the power of speech be entirely lost, but it is usually an intellectual injury, and the function of speech remains stationary in its development. The child does not advance and may never again be capable of complete intellectual development. We have seen how important the intellect is to the reception of the impulses coming to the brain, through the organs of sense. It must pay close concentrated attention to the arriving impressions, to analyze, interpret and store away, so that they may at any time be called up in orderly array to be reproduced. If this attention cannot be paid to these incoming impressions, they are not fixed, but, to use a popular phrase, "They pass in one ear and out the other"; while those already recorded previous to the injury, freed from the control of the intellect, are no longer intelligently employed. These are the cases where the lack of development of the speech, or the defect, is due to intellectual deficiency.

There are all grades of this intellectual deficiency, and all grades of defective speech due to the deficiency. If the intellectual defect exists before the development of speech, and is of considerable degree, speech is acquired very late. In the severe cases it is either never acquired beyond a few monosyllables, or a certain more or less intelligent command over simple sentences is attained, usually late in childhood. In most of these cases speech would develop were the intelligence capable of being concentrated on the impressions received through the nerves of hearing and sight. That is, the receptive and productive centres of speech are intact, only the intellect is lacking.

We must remember, however, that the same cause that renders the intellect incapable of performing its functions may also injure or prevent the development, as the case may be, of one or more of the speech centres proper. Some of the abnormal conditions mentioned, especially those occurring early in foetal life, prevent the development of the brain *as a whole*, and consequently may affect all its parts.

On the other hand, we may have a defect of one or more of the speech centres alone, while the intellect may be normal. While this condition may be a defect of development, it is far more likely to be the result of direct injury or disease of the respective centres or the nerve fibres that go to or come from them.

We will now turn for a moment to the diagram, on which these centres are represented in the brain. The locations here given, it should be said, are approximate only. It is not possible, as yet, to sharply define their boundaries in the arbitrary manner in which they are here drawn for the purpose of graphic illustration.

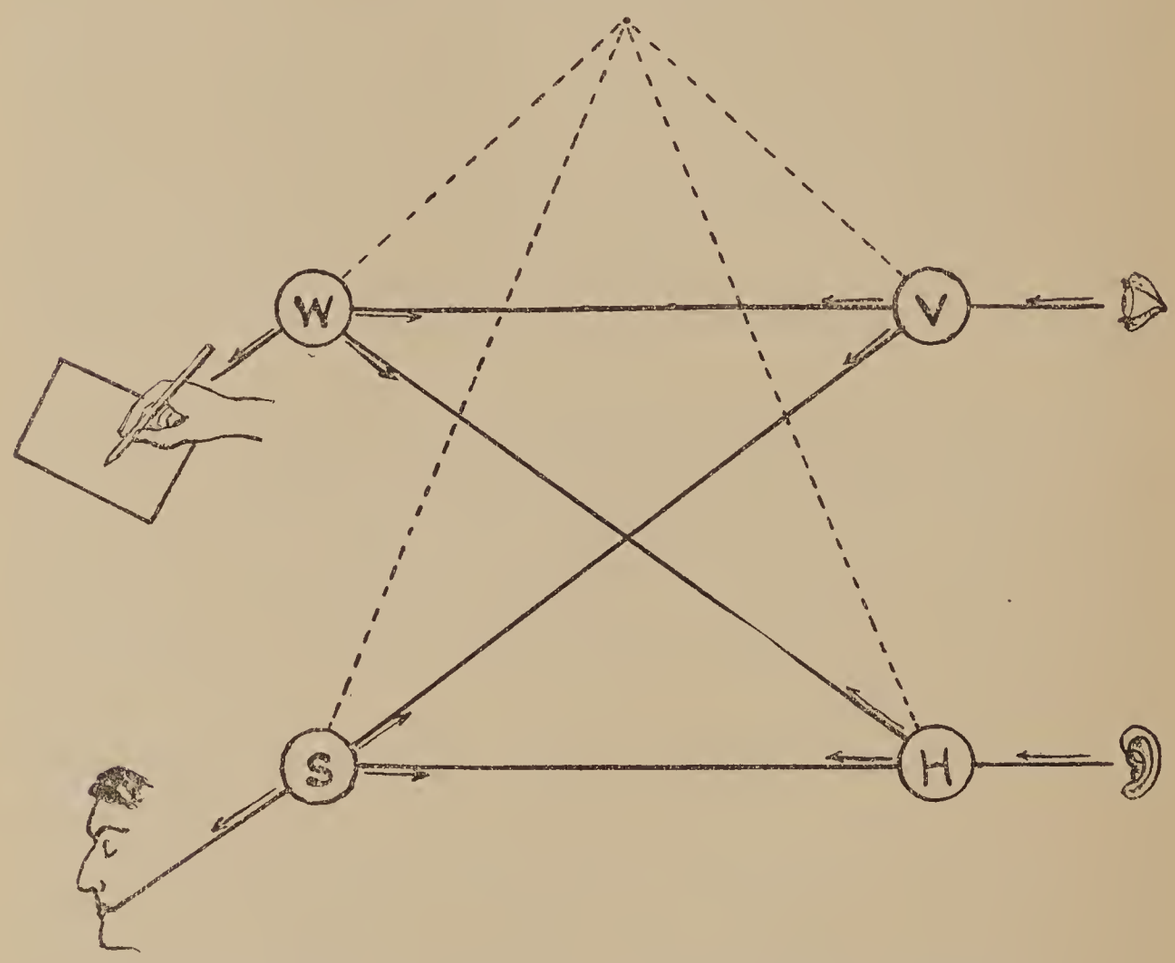
Let us now remove these centres, for the sake of clearness, from the brain, and represent them diagrammatically in the following way. From this diagram we may understand the result on the function of speech, of defects or injuries to these various centres. In this diagram the centres are graphically portrayed, and I have suggested the control of the intellect over these centres, by dotted lines.

I have already said that if the intellect is deficient before speech is developed, it can be acquired only slowly and with difficulty, or not at all; while if the intellect is rendered defective after speech is developed, speech can be employed, but not intelligently. The time *when* the defect of intellect appears, relative to the acquirement of the speech function, is of considerable importance in producing the abnormal picture which we may have before us in any given individual, and this is also true of defects of the speech centres proper.

It is obvious that in the education of the individual, all of these centres here represented are of the greatest importance. Each contributes its part towards the general development and enlightenment of the child. If one of the centres is injured after

we have had the use of it for a considerable time, we have gained just so much over what we would have possessed had that centre never been developed or injured before it had begun to develop. This will at once be apparent, if we consider the difference between a child born blind, and one acquiring blindness, let us say, at the tenth year. In the former case we have always been minus a function, in the latter we have had the use of the sight as an aid to the building up of the intellect and the training of the other senses.

THE INTELLECT.



Diagrammatic representation of the centres of speech.

Assuming then, two injuries of equal degree, the one occurring earliest in life is likely to be more serious in its results on the development of the child. If the centre for the visual memories of written and printed speech "V" is destroyed, the person is unable to write or read. He can repeat intelligently from dictation what others read to him, but he cannot read or write *himself*. He can see the words because the centre for sight is

not destroyed, but only the centre for the forms of written or printed speech, which are *based* on the forms acquired through the sense of sight.

Likewise, when the motor centre for written speech "W" is destroyed, the faculty of writing is lost, because the memories of the complex movements, learned by practice and by sight, are destroyed. When "V" is destroyed, all recognition of a word is lost, although the word is seen. When, however, the tract of nerve fibres, running from "V" to "W," is destroyed or interrupted, a word seen is comprehended, but cannot be reproduced in writing.

Let us now see what happens when the centres for articulate speech are involved. If "H" is destroyed, the memories of the complex sounds and combinations of sounds, and words that have been acquired through the sense of hearing, are lost. Sounds can be heard, and music, for instance, be enjoyed, but the memory of the meaning of words heard is lost. If the centre "S" where the memories of the movements of the vocal organs necessary to produce articulate speech is destroyed, the power of articulate speech is lost. The person is dumb, but of course can express himself in writing, can understand all he sees or hears, but cannot express himself in spoken speech. If the nerve connecting the path between "H" and "S" is interrupted, the individual cannot express in speech words called up from the store-house of memory, but can understand what he hears, can read aloud, and write, both from dictation and from memory, and he can speak, but uses wrong words, especially names of things, because the guiding path from the centre where he has stored the words he has learned by sound is cut across. If at the same time, the path "S-V" is broken, he cannot read aloud, although he can still write from dictation or from memory.

If the pathway "H-W" is destroyed, however, with the others, he can neither repeat words heard, nor read aloud, nor write from dictation; the only thing left him is the ability to copy and to write from memory. If "V-W" is cut off, he is deprived of this power also, and is then, so far as *intelligent use of articulate or graphic speech is concerned*, dumb, although all the speech *centres, proper*, are intact.

We must say here, that this diagram, on account of its extreme simplicity, is excellently adapted to give an idea of the underlying principles of brain disturbances of the speech function, but not, perhaps, an absolutely accurate idea of the practice of the function. In reality, the subject is much more complex than would at first sight seem. And indeed, though great advance has been made in the understanding of the function of speech in the last three decades, there are many obscure points yet to be cleared up.

It is the principle involved, however, that it is important for you to know. We will not, therefore, go any deeper into the intricacies of the brain structure, since the principle is well served in the facts thus far touched upon.

We will now speak of a class of cases already mentioned, but not especially discussed. The class we have just considered has been cases of brain injury, using the term in a broad sense. The class of defectives I now wish to speak of, is that apparently due to heredity. These are due to some defect in the primary structure at its earliest inception. They are anatomical defects of which the defect in the brain is but a part of the more or less defective anatomical structure of the body as a whole. In nearly all of *these* children, the brain is defective as a whole, coincident with the defects of speech. We cannot tell from the apparent condition of the brain functions alone, whether the deficiency is really hereditary, or whether it is acquired, because, as we have seen, an injury early in the period of structural formation of the brain may so modify its further growth, that it never reaches full and symmetrical development. Such a case is of course not hereditary. When, however, we have in a mentally deficient child, *elsewhere in the body*, marked single defects, or lesser but multiple defects in the anatomical structure, we may reasonably infer that the deficient brain is but a part of a structure that is more or less defective as a whole, a condition of things that could not arise from primary lesion of the brain, or any of its parts, but must have had its origin far back in the very earliest inception of the individual. There are cases, however, in which careful search may not show any conspicuous variation from the normal anatomical type in the case before us,

but careful search in his brothers and sisters may reveal marked departure from the normal; or we may find such evidences of a defective formation in one or both of the parents. We may then reasonably assume (though perhaps not with absolute certainty), that the defect in the case in which we are interested is but a manifestation of the tendency to defective structural formation given by the parents to the child, and evident in other parts of the body of the respective child, his brothers, and sisters, or his parents.

Some of these anatomical defects are: abnormalities in the shape or size of the skull, anomalies of the teeth, tongue, or nose, asymmetry of the face, narrowness of the orifice of the eyes, undue height and narrowness of the palate, cross eyes, irregular shape of the ears, etc. Others are classed as physiological defects, and include the sensory deficiencies such as blindness or deafness, when they are hereditary, anomalies of the senses of taste and smell, retardation of development, etc. Stuttering and stammering are also sometimes included under this head.

But anatomical and physiological anomalies are not the only things which may be taken as evidence of the probable hereditary nature of the defective intellect.

There are various nervous and psychical derangements of which we may obtain a history in the ancestors of the child, or in his parents, or in his brothers or sisters, which may equally well be suggestive of defective organization.

Such are, for instance, the occurrence of insanity in any of its various forms, the existence of epilepsy, the prevalence of marked eccentricities, the occurrence of hysteria, or various cataleptic conditions, moral deficiencies, etc., in several members of the family.

The occurrence of the physiological or psychical disturbances in our patient himself must be disregarded, as far as any evidence of heredity is concerned, for we can never say that *they* may not be only the result of the abnormal condition of his brain. These occurrences in the relatives are suggestive in much the same way as the anatomical defects, of a depreciation in the evolution of the family towards the ideal human type. They are both termed the stigmata of degeneration.

It is of some importance to determine if we can whether a

given defective case is hereditary or not, because the outlook for these cases, while not always encouraging, is considered as being somewhat more favorable as regards future progress in development under special instruction, than those cases where the brain has been injured by some more or less rapidly acting injury, from disease or otherwise. In the latter instances some important part of the brain is *likely* to be totally destroyed beyond any possibility of repair. It must not be assumed, however, that this is by any means necessarily the case. In mental deficiency, the grades range through all degrees, from those in which the deficiency is but slightly suggested in the slower progress of the child, down through the varying levels of intelligence, to the lowest type of idiocy, where the being breathes, and, with the aid of those upon whom he is dependent, exists, but has no mind. The lower grades are hopeless, but the lighter forms are very hopeful, and even those of considerable degree offer much response to the patient, long continued effort. Many of the lighter degrees do fairly well, and it is only when we compare them with the average child at their age that we see well marked the extent of the deficiency.

To determine whether in a given case the speech defect is probably due to defect in the intellect, we must test the intelligence of the child in other ways than by the employment of the function of speech. We must in our investigation begin by accepting the fact that the speech defect may be due to a number of more or less distinct causes, of which lesions in the brain structure may be one; and that of these brain defects a defect of the intellect may, in itself alone, be responsible for the defective speech, or it may exist with other structural brain abnormalities, contributing in this case *merely its part* towards the deficiency of the function which we are considering. We must first test the comprehension of the child for simple objects, appealing to its understanding through the senses of touch, taste, and smell, and, to a limited extent, through the senses of hearing and sight. But the response that we obtain to this attempt to elicit the understanding of the child must come to us preferably through other functions, only to a restricted degree through the function of speech; in order that we may not be led into error, in our es-

timate of the intellect of the child, by the very defect whose cause we are seeking. No more common mistake is made by the community than its almost instinctive tendency to consider an individual intellectually deficient when he cannot express his ideas in speech, so dependent have we all become on the function of speech as the medium of expression of our thoughts.

We must notice the facial expression of the child in response to our questions. We may make simple requests of the child and note the facial expression, the promptitude, the manner, and the degree of success with which the child responds to our commands. We may endeavor to bring out original thoughts, beginning with those of the most simple nature, and working up in the scale of intellectual evolution, constantly of course keeping before us the picture of the average degree of mental advancement proper for the age of the respective child.

We can show the child an object, and let him indicate to us, in other ways than by the use of the perceptive speech centres, the qualities and uses of the object. Such indication is of as much value to us in estimating his intelligence as a similar indication through the function of speech. It is simply somewhat more difficult for *us to so interpret* the individual, because we are not so used to other modes of thought expression as we are to its expression in speech. We may employ, if the child is old enough, simple problems in numbers which will aid us in our estimate of the mental capacity of the child.

There is present in some of these cases of speech defects from brain lesions, paralysis of one or more extremities, which is merely the external evidence of destruction or injury of the areas in the brain having direction over the muscular action of the arms and legs. These cases are practically invariably acquired injuries from hemorrhage or disease, although they may have occurred, as already stated, before birth. In some of these cases, there are sometimes seen involuntary, irregular movements of the extremities, and possibly of the head and face, which may also involve the tongue, and render the proper use of this organ in speech impossible. Such cases are the direct result of injury to the brain manifested in this peculiar way by the sending out of a constant succession of impulses, having no

object, and seriously impeding or rendering impossible the voluntary use of the muscles. Such cases are practically incurable, although some little improvement may be obtained, perhaps, by the long continued practice of educative movements of the muscles involved. Occasionally these involuntary movements may come on only when some voluntary motion is attempted. Their effect is to utterly destroy that harmonious interaction of the muscles necessary for complex movements. When affecting the tongue they naturally interfere with the function of speech. This coordinate action of the muscles involved in speech is interfered with, in the same way that sometimes occurs during an attack of St. Vitus' dance. This latter is a disease which is characterized by irregular muscular movements not under the control of the will. If affecting the tongue, they interfere with speech just as do the movements above mentioned. This is, fortunately, a curable disease, and therefore the disturbance of speech is not of serious moment.

I simply mention it here, since it is a disturbance of comparatively frequent occurrence, and might lead to the assumption for the time being at least, that some organic disturbance of the function of speech was present. Further consideration of it, or of certain other functional diseases, however, would lead us away from the subject of speech defects in their relation to abnormal conditions of the brain.

Epilepsy may also be one of the manifestations in later life, of some earlier disease or injury of the brain, and is sometimes an occurrence in individuals with speech defects resulting from such injury. It is especially frequent in the cases of varying degrees of mental deficiency.

I will now close what has perhaps been a long, but I trust not an uninteresting consideration of what we may term cerebral speech defects in contradistinction to those defects of speech induced by causes external to the brain.

362 Commonwealth Ave., Boston.

THE AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE DEAF.[1]

G. FERRERI, ROME, ITALY.

CHAPTER III.

The Course of Instruction.

The school legislation in America may vary from state to state and from city to city. The systems also for rendering efficacious the legislative provisions obliging the children of the people to attend the elementary schools may vary from each other. The schools established for the benefit of the colored poor and the children of emigrants may follow various rules also. But one substantial point is firmly established everywhere: Every child, whether normal or not, must be instructed. The opportunity is offered to every child of developing his own talents and to perfect himself so as to become a useful member of society and an honest American citizen. This principle, however, is not merely theoretical (as is, too truly alas, that of compulsory education in Italy, where, unfortunately also, it is limited to normal children) and where the parents and relatives may follow it or not as they choose. In the United States the School Board does its duty, and every child is obliged to attend the school nearest to its residence. As to the child, then, who by reason of special conditions of mind and body requires a special education, its parents have only to announce to the School Board of their city or state, which school or institution they prefer—and this preference may depend on reasons of place, method, or of religion. From such favorable conditions it follows, as a natural consequence, that the deaf child may enter a special school at the age of five years; but in the kindergarten schools, the deaf child may enter even at the tender age of two years.

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[1]Translated for The Association Review by the author. Begun in the June, 1904, number.

In the New York Institution, the first one visited by me,—situated on the banks of the Hudson, the oldest one in the United States, and perhaps the most noted one in Europe,—the pupils (about 400) are divided according to age into four departments in the following manner:

Pupils from 5 to 7 years.
Pupils from 7 to 12 years.
Pupils from 12 to 17 years.
Pupils from 17 to 20 years.

From this subdivision, to which special classes of the school correspond, it is easy to argue that the ordinary course of instruction may extend from ten to twelve years. The same occurs in the majority of the most advanced of the states, and in no place is the school-course less than ten to twelve years.

It need not surprise us, therefore, that the results of the American schools are much better, as regards development and culture of the mind, knowledge, and use of language than those of similar institutions in Europe and in other parts of the civilized world. I verified this difference immediately in the higher classes of the New York Institution, and if I had not reflected upon the age and the number of the pupils in the higher classes, I could easily have fallen into the error of attributing these good results to the fortunate combination of the didactic means employed. Here the fundamental and principal means of teaching is the manual alphabet, subordinated naturally to the learning of language.

The children of the first course (from 5 to 7 years) soon accustom themselves to recognize the letters of the alphabet printed on separate cards, to reproduce them with chalk on the black-board, and to translate them with their fingers.

The manual alphabet begins with the first day of school, and later it becomes almost automatic and unconscious. In regard to this I noticed the circumstance that while our pupils in trying to recall a word by its written form, instinctively move their lips, or close their eyes in order to find the whole of the graphic symbol with the local memory, in the manual schools they instinctively move their fingers and try to reintegrate in their own hands the word they seek. There is here a continuous exercise of digital innervation. I also had the opportunity of studying this

phenomenon in the typical case of Helen Keller, who, although she thinks much in articulate speech, nevertheless, her hand also reproduces with the alphabet every word she thinks. When questioned by me on this point, she assured me that in that act of elaborating the thought her hand would often translate her thought into language without her paying direct attention to the action.

It seems to me that this fact shows that the first image which presents itself in the act of reproduction of the word is that which has been learned first, and physiological laws confirm the reasonableness of this. From this I would conclude that in the schools of the Combined system, articulate speech can never give the same results which are given in the exclusively Oral schools. But I will return to this subject later.

Now I wish to speak of the course of ordinary instruction. In the American schools it is divided into three distinct parts, which are called the primary, intermediate, and grammar schools. The graduation from school takes place at the end of the third course; but pupils are allowed to leave school at the age of fourteen years, that is to say, after nine years of instruction when it is begun at five years of age as usual. Every part of the course has its special program, as regards extent, but substantially they are the same as regards matter if one excepts manual labour and drawing applied to mechanics.

The same division and very nearly the same branches of study are found in the schools for the Deaf, with this difference that the deaf pupils can remain in school three or more years after the ordinary course. And the reason for this is evident: It is necessary for the deaf-mutes first of all to acquire the means by which they can receive instruction. In the day-school of Boston, a model school of the Oral method, they have until now devoted three years to this object; but recently they have asked that the preparatory course should be extended to four years, that is, before the children are admitted to commence the ordinary course of primary instruction.

In other Institutions, as for example in that of Providence, Rhode Island, the pupils may remain in the school from 3 to 20 years, according to their needs. The law, however, establishes the age of from 6 to 18 years.

I have also observed that, generally, when the pupils are not in haste to leave school in order to apply themselves to some trade, it is easy for them to obtain a prorogue or postponement. So that all the Deaf of good or even medial intelligence may have all the time necessary for obtaining a good degree of instruction.

And this is exactly the point on which I must insist, in order to prove that the good results of the American schools cannot be attributed either to the mimic, the manual alphabet, or to articulate speech. The most valuable coefficient of these is the prolonged grammatical instruction.

It is well known that the advocates of the Mimic and of the Combined system, when visiting the schools of Europe, were impressed with the lack of good results from the teaching of language, and they attributed this to the time lost in teaching mechanical speech in the primary instruction. It seems to me that this is too great an error to let pass, and it must be corrected. And it must be corrected by a consideration, which perhaps was never yet made because too simple.

But first, I must anticipate an objection which might readily be made. I myself, in speaking of the arrested psychic development of the Deaf from the lack of co-operation of the language of the mother, have maintained that there are limits in the minds of many deaf-mutes which cannot be passed, either by the superiority of the method, or by prolonged instruction. Now this opinion of mine stands in agreement, although it appears to the contrary, with another opinion on which I intend to insist at present.

There is a kind of statistics which have not yet been written, either for the Deaf, or for the hearing. I mean to say, the statistics of the pupils who, for one reason or another, have not finished the course of study undertaken. When these statistics are written, I do not hesitate to affirm, they will show that the great majority of the pupils who have fallen by the way, is composed of those of weak intelligence. This opinion of mine is derived from repeated observations made in the field of reality. In our schools where the course of instruction is much inferior to the needs of the pupils, we observe that after the second year (if not after the first) some of the pupils begin to lag behind.

Their minds develop slowly, and, notwithstanding that the teacher bestows greater care upon them, they do not succeed in regaining the ground lost, and they finish so far behind that, when the hour arrives for their graduation, they have not had the satisfaction even of entering the higher classes. Now the same occurs also in America, where the deaf-mutes are, after all, deaf-mutes; so that indeed there, as in Europe, they feel the need of a selection based upon the intellectual superiority of the pupils. In the schools of America that happens which, for the same reason, happens in our schools. While in the first classes we count ten and twelve pupils, and sometimes we are obliged to double the sections of the first two or three years of instruction, we find in the last classes, or rather in the last course, four, five, or six pupils, well on in years, who are preparing to graduate from school. I have asked the teachers and Principals many times the reason of this process of selection, and their answers were various. Many pupils, they said, had been taken away from school in order to be employed at some trade; others preferred to devote themselves to some manual labor in which they had been initiated, and in which they seemed to succeed very well; others had little aptitude for learning language, and could not have succeeded in graduating even if they had remained in school. As one sees from these answers, one fact is very evident, that of natural selection. The weak ones always fall by the way. And I do not hesitate to affirm this same cause of weak intelligence of all those who stop half way in the course. This authorizes another series of investigations which I have been able to make in the schools of America.

The principal aim of the American schools is that of placing each pupil in the conditions best adapted for developing his physical and intellectual powers. For this object there are also open to all gratuitously the High Schools, that is to say, a higher course of instruction for the study of the classic languages, ancient and modern, and for the practical application of the physical-mathematical sciences. The competition among American citizens for making themselves an independent position in commerce or trade, the most lucrative possible and corresponding best to their individual capacity, does not admit of any exception.

Hence, every youth who does not succeed in finishing the course of study is an inferior, either from lack of intelligence or will-power; in the first case we have the natural selection referred to, in the second case we have to do with a pathological *abulia* and, therefore, outside of the social environment, which is made up of individual initiative, which best develops itself the harder the life is.

It follows, therefore, that the greater part of the young, normal or not, who have not finished their primary course of instruction, are of little intelligence.

I had another proof of the truth of this when investigating the causes for which some pupils had been retained two, three, or more years besides the usual course in the Institute; they told me that to obtain permission for this from the state or city authorities, or the autonomous administration of the school, as the case might be, it was only necessary that the parents of the pupil should come to an understanding with the Principal of the Institute.

It does not seem necessary to waste many words in persuading others that this understanding is always based upon the exceptional intellectual condition of the pupil. Does it not always happen so in Latin countries? There is, however, a very important difference which should be noticed here. When a pupil is kept for a greater length of time in the American schools, even at the expense of the public administration, it never is done to the damage of the other deaf-mutes. In Italy, on the contrary, if a pupil is kept even a few months besides the ordinary course, (and usually this is done because he is a good "parade horse,") it represents a crime of injustice against many, many unfortunate ones, who, from reason of age, or from there being no post free for them, are deprived for life of the benefit of an education.

This necessary digression being made, I will return to my first proposition and say to the defenders of the old school and the admirers of the Combined system: Give me 400 deaf-mutes, and if with the same moral and material conditions of the educational environment, after 12 or 14 years of Oral instruction, there are not found enough to make a select class of 20, who can be sent to follow a course of higher education, I will renounce the Oral

method and become a Paladin of the Mimic in the beginning of the 20th century. But this can never happen, for even the Eclectic colleagues admit now that also in the Oral schools there may be found ten per cent. of the pupils capable of going to the University. This serves to demonstrate once again that arithmetic is not an opinion, and when you demand the measure of the figures, much poetry evaporates, and only the naked facts remain to represent the simple reality of the matter.

It would be well that we should cease at last repeating the stale argument of the naturalness of the mimic language and from attributing to it what has been and always will be the effect of natural selection, of the prolonged course of instruction, and of an exceptional condition of the school and of the pupils.

(*To be continued.*)

THE NINTH CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF.

The Ninth Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf was held in the Halls of Congresses, Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis, October 17-20, 1904.

The session of Monday, October 17, was called to order at 9:30 A. M., President Francis D. Clarke in the chair. In the absence of the Secretary and the Assistant Secretary, Dr. E. A. Fay was elected to act as Secretary.

The President made a brief address of welcome, after which the following committees were appointed: On nominations—Mr. N. F. Walker, Mr. W. K. Argo, Miss Sarah Fuller; on credentials—Mr. E. B. Nelson, Mr. J. W. Blattner, Mr. R. E. Stewart; on resolutions—Dr. W. Wilkinson, Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, Mr. A. Rogers.

Vice-President N. F. Walker here took the chair and the first topic on the programme, "Courses of Study and Text Books," was discussed by various members, Mr. F. D. Clarke leading. It is Mr. Clarke's belief that while a formal course of study should govern the work of a school, it should be tempered and directed by wisdom, and in a way not to be looked to and followed as a hard and fast rule. The course of study used in the Michigan School is designed and arranged for the congenital deaf child of average ability, requiring thirteen years for its completion. The text books used are, for the younger grades, the Hartford series by Miss Sweet, and for the grades above the fifth, the regular books used in the hearing schools of the state, the pupils graduating on a par with the Junior class in the High School of the city. The discussion of the topic was continued by Mr. J. W. Jones, Dr. W. Wilkinson, and Mr. R. O. Johnson, Mr. Jones and Mr. Johnson advocating the use of a carefully

prepared and complete course of study, printed and placed in the hands of teachers for their information and guidance, and Dr. Wilkinson urging the objection that such courses—while possibly helpful to poor teachers—have, in the hands of good teachers, the tendency to restrict and to take away enthusiasm and initiative.

The next subject on the progamme, "Examinations, Grading, and Promotions," was treated in a carefully prepared paper by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter. It is Dr. Crouter's practice to conduct in person an annual examination of his school of five hundred pupils, the examination taking his entire time for a period varying from a month to six weeks in mid-term. He is, therefore, fitted by experience to speak as an authority upon the subject. In his paper, while recognizing certain objections to examinations as more or less worthy of consideration, he counted the advantages of properly conducted examinations as far outweighing their disadvantages, and held that, so far, nothing better to take their place has been suggested. As we hope to be able in some future number to present this paper in full, further reference to it is here omitted. The subject was discussed by Mr. R. O. Johnson, Mr. S. T. Walker, Mr. F. D. Clarke, Mr. F. M. Driggs, Miss Anna Morse, Mr. T. S. McAloney, Dr. W. Wilkinson, Dr. J. N. Tate, Dr. Chas. W. Ely, Mr. W. K. Argo, Mr. N. F. Walker, and Mr. W. O. Connor.

The topic, "The Higher Education of the Deaf," was discussed by Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, who held that the question of higher education for the deaf is a solved problem—that it has been solved at Gallaudet College, and solved both in its commercial aspect and from the happiness point of veiw. It is desired at all times to improve the course at the college and to modify it to meet all proper demands; but the college awaits suggestion and pressure from the schools, and from students themselves as to their desires. With regard to the aspect of the question relating to the higher education of the deaf in colleges for the hearing, Dr. Gallaudet regarded this also—from the successful completion of courses in such colleges by a number of deaf students—as a solved question. However, he believed that only a small proportion of the deaf possess the necessary mental

power, force, and persistence to overcome the difficulties in the way, and if the college for the deaf were abolished and the deaf of the country were compelled to depend upon hearing colleges for a higher education, not one-fourth of those now coming to Gallaudet could take a college course. The better preparation of students by the schools for entry to the introductory and freshman classes of the college was urged by the speaker, who stated in this connection, that he considered that the schools for the deaf in this country for the past fifteen years have not made the advancement that other schools have made, the requirements for admission to the college being the same that they were fifteen years ago.

Dr. J. N. Tate here presented greetings to the Conference from Dr. J. L. Noyes and Judge R. A. Mott. Dr. Gallaudet moved that a message of greeting in reply be sent to Dr. Noyes and Judge Mott, which on vote was ordered.

On Tuesday the Conference attended the Helen Keller Day exercises in a body and no meeting otherwise was held.

The first topic on the programme of Wednesday was, "The Department of Special Education of the National Educational Association," and the discussion of it was led by Mr. J. W. Jones. The speaker reviewed the work of the department at its recent meeting and pointed out the lack of interest in it on the part of instructors of the deaf. He recommended that the Conference withdraw from affiliation with the department. The question was discussed by various members, but a motion made to effect such withdrawal was declared out of order as the Conference as a body has never had official connection with the department, and members are free as members of the National Educational Association and as individuals to affiliate with any of its departments as they may see fit.

"Moral and Religious Training" was the next topic, and Dr. J. R. Dobyns took charge of the discussion, which was participated in by Dr. W. Wilkinson, Mr. R. E. Stewart, Mr. E. W. Walker, Mr. C. P. Gillett, Dr. J. N. Tate, Mr. Henry W. Rothert, Mr. R. Mathison, Mr. H. C. Hammond, Mr. W. Wade, and Mr. W. O. Connor. The general sentiment, as expressed, was for careful moral, but non-sectarian, training, and the employment

of the Sabbath as not only a day of rest, but also as a day of recreation for the pupils, one or two of the speakers going so far as to say they would permit outdoor games, such as base ball, football, bicycling, etc., and indoor games, such as checkers, dominoes, cards, etc., were it not that public sentiment is so strongly against it in their localities.

The report of the committee on nominations for officers of the Conference for the ensuing term of three years, was here presented by the chairman, Mr. N. F. Walker, as follows:

For President, R. O. Johnson, of Indiana; Vice-President, J. N. Tate, of Minnesota; Secretary, Augustus Rogers, of Kentucky; Assistant Secretary, J. P. Walker, of New Jersey; Executive Committee, R. O. Johnson, of Indiana; F. D. Clarke, of Michigan; J. H. Johnson, of Alabama; W. K. Argo, of Colorado; and A. L. E. Crouter, of Pennsylvania. On vote the persons named were duly elected. [Since the adjournment of the Conference the resignation of Mr. Argo from the Committee has been accepted, and Mr. J. W. Jones, of Ohio, has been elected to fill the vacancy.]

The next topic on the programme was, "Day Schools, Advantages and Disadvantages," the discussion of which was led by Dr. W. Wilkinson, and participated in by Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, Miss Frances Wettstein, Mr. J. W. Jones, Mr. F. D. Clarke, Mrs. E. A. Nordin, Mr. E. W. Walker, Dr. Z. F. Westervelt, and Mr. R. O. Johnson. The sentiment was in general unfavorable to the day-school idea, and especially unfavorable to the smaller and isolated day-schools, it being held that centralization in large schools or institutions secured advantages of grading and supervision unattainable in small and scattered day-schools. It was conceded, however, that there were arguments for day-schools, and a demand for them on the part of parents and the public, and that there is no doubt the day-school has come to stay; and this being the case, it was urged that day-schools be accepted as a part of the educational system of the state and that the institutions come into harmonious affiliation with them, such that pupils taking their primary instruction in the day-schools, should then pass to the institutions as to high schools, to complete their literary education and to secure industrial training. It was further

urged, in order that the best result should be attained, that there be competent supervision of day-schools in every state by an Inspector or Superintendent, acting as a state official, and independently of selfish or local influences.

A petition was here read from Mr. Jas. F. Donnelly of Brooklyn, in behalf of the Catholic children of the schools, that they be given instruction in the religion of their parents and allowed full privileges of attendance upon the services of their church.

The first subject on the programme at the Thursday session of the Conference was, "Further Development of Industrial Training." The discussion was led by Mr. J. P. Walker, who was followed by Mr. J. W. Blattner, Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, Dr. W. Wilkinson, Mr. E. H. Currier, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, Miss Anna Morse, Mr. J. W. Jones, and Mrs. E. A. Nordin, the questions of Sloyd teaching, the use of the linotype machine in printing, the teaching of horticulture and floriculture, the employment of the very young pupils, and post-graduate courses in trades receiving chief consideration.

"Supervision and Care of Pupils, Household and Otherwise," was the topic next discussed. Those participating in the discussion were Mr. S. T. Walker, Mr. W. O. Connor, Mr. R. O. Johnson, Miss Anna Morse, Mr. W. K. Argo, Dr. A. L. E. Crouter, and Mr. J. W. Jones.

The subject of "The Deaf Blind" was admirably treated in a paper by Mrs. Elizabeth Anrep Nordin, head of the school for the Deaf Blind at Venersborg, Sweden, who has been for eighteen years past engaged in her present work. She was followed by Miss Amkea Schmidt, of Emden, Germany, who gave an interesting account of the work in the school for the Deaf in Emden, with which she is connected as a teacher. Both Mrs. Nordin and Miss Schmidt are, we understand, in this country to visit schools and to study methods, being commissioned for this duty by their respective governments.

Dr. E. A. Fay, editor of the American Annals of the Deaf, read his report, covering the term of four years intervening since the meeting of the last Conference.

Mr. M. H. Holt, a Trustee of the Morganton, North Carolina, school, here extended a most cordial invitation to the mem-

bers of the Conference, to attend the meeting of the Convention of American Instructors, to be held the coming Summer at Morganton. Mr. W. O. Connor, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, and Mr. F. D. Clarke responded in harmony with the spirit of the invitation.

A resolution offered by Mr. J. W. Jones expressing it as the sense of the Conference that deaf children should be brought up in the faith of their parents, and that they be given instruction and privileges of worship such as to preserve this faith to them, was, after somewhat heated discussion, laid upon the table. The discussion was participated in by Rev. Father F. Moeller, Mr. Henry W. Rothert, Mr. R. O. Johnson, Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, Dr. J. R. Dobyns, Mr. J. W. Jones, and Dr. Chas. W. Ely.

Mr. Henry W. Rothert offered a resolution extending the thanks of the Conference to Mr. Alvin E. Pope for his work in organizing and conducting the model schools at this Exposition. Mr. W. K. Argo moved a resolution of thanks to the Exposition authorities for the facilities afforded the Conference for its meetings. Mr. R. O. Johnson offered a resolution of thanks to Mrs. E. A. Nordin and Miss Amkea Schmidt for their attendance and for their papers. Mrs. Nordin in replying presented the greetings to the Conference of her husband, Mr. Frederick Nordin, the head of the Venersborg, Sweden, School for the Deaf.

Mr. R. O. Johnson, on being installed as President, took the occasion to extend an invitation to the Conference to hold its next meeting at the Indianapolis school, in 1907. On motion of Dr. A. L. E. Crouter this invitation was accepted.

Dr. W. Wilkinson moved a vote of thanks to Mr. F. D. Clarke as President, and Dr. E. A. Fay as Secretary, for the courteous and efficient manner in which they had performed their duties.

The committee on credentials made final report that there had been in attendance upon the Conference forty Superintendents and Principals and thirty-one honorary members.

F. W. B.

HELEN KELLER DAY AT ST. LOUIS.

October 18, 1904, was the day set aside by the management of the Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis, and given the name "Helen Keller Day," in honor of a young woman who in herself, as has been suggested, "among all the wonders of the Fair, among all the achievements of human genius, among all the evidences of twentieth century civilization, embraced the most striking features of all." It was fitting, therefore, that Helen Keller should not only be present as any other individual to visit the great Exposition, and to enjoy it in all its wonders and beauties—as only she could, with her remarkable powers of understanding and capacity for enjoying things understood—but fitting also that she should permit herself to be seen and heard by the thousands who, in their love for the good, the beautiful, and the true, would wish to see her and to know her in the full beauty of her personality, in the strength of her mind and character, and in all the versatility of her accomplishments. There are the thousands who saw Helen Keller and who know her who never thus knew her before, and the world is, and will be for all time, the better for it, for the day will be to them a bright memory, a day to be told of to their children and their children's children to the third and fourth generation.

The exercises of the day were in charge of Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, who introduced the Hon. David R. Francis, President of the Exposition, as the first speaker. Mr. Francis on behalf of the authorities of the Fair, gave Miss Keller a graceful and feeling welcome, expressing it that a new vocabulary would need to be invented in order that one could do justice to the achievements of Helen Keller.

Miss Keller was then introduced and delivered an address. The audience room being large and her voice not being strong, her sentences were repeated by Miss Sullivan—who stood next her—to Mr. Francis, who in turn repeated them to the audience. It is probable that Mr. Francis could have taken the sentences

directly from Miss Keller's lips, but any failure to do so would have resulted in unnecessary embarrassment, and the attempt was not made. The following is Miss Keller's address:

"I have been asked to come here to-day and lend my voice for the uplifting of those who struggle in unequal and untoward circumstances. All these great halls of machinery, power, and art are the achievements of the strength of man when his arm is free and his heart unbound. In the midst of so much achievement, the presence of our convention tells us that man has not forgotten his weaker brother. Many have been invited here because of learning, skill, or achievement; for their contributions to the beauty and art of the world. I am here, not for what I have done, but for what has been done for me—to raise me to the level of those that see and hear.

"I testify to what the good and grand have done for deprivation and infirmity. My evidence is of able men and women who have done what they could to unstop ears, open eyes, give speech to the lips of the dumb and light to darkened minds. I enter with you into the community of living speech, and for the joy of speech I express my heartfelt gratitude.

"Such is my brief and earnest message to you. Now, may I say what seems to be the message of the Exposition to us who work—the sightless and the seeing, the dumb and the hearing? Here are manufactures and works of art; yonder stands the locomotive; there the manifestation of irrigation which has annihilated the desert; and in the halls of education man reclaims his fellow man by annihilating darkness.

"The Louisiana Purchase Exposition is a great manifestation of enlightenment. All of man's thousand torches burn here at once. The Exposition is what its founder intended it to be—a world university. Here we see the machine and its products, side by side, body and soul together. Here we see the root, the process, and the fruit. This Fair is an epitome of the world. It stretches the capacity of the soul and extends the intellect.

"Here all nations are brought together. We of America think no country since Eden has been so good as ours; but no nation is so great as the sum of all. Here the spirit of civilization shines forth, illumined by the work of those who help the ones that must walk in darkness. The desire to help them is more deeply implanted now than in any other age; the world is on our side.

"The forces here displayed lift up my hands and support my weakness. Science, nature, and art say to me: *Thou art deaf and blind, but entire thou into the Kingdom of God.*

"God bless the nations that provide an education for all"

Addresses followed by Dr. E. M. Gallaudet and by Dr. Warring Wilkinson, which fittingly closed a day that none fortunate enough to be present will recall with feelings other than that God will surely answer Helen Keller's prayer, and "bless the nations that provide an education for all." Dr. Gallaudet's address in the parts not heretofore published, and Dr. Wilkinson's in full, may be found in the current issue of the American Annals by our readers wishing them.

A statement by Miss Sarah Fuller, describing the methods used in teaching Helen Keller to speak, was read—Miss Fuller not being present—by Mr. Alvin E. Pope. This account having been published before, is familiar to most of our readers, so we omit it here.

In the evening a reception given in honor of Miss Keller by the deaf of St. Louis, was held in the Missouri state building. Addresses were made by Hon. David R. Francis and Dr. E. M. Gallaudet, and by Mr. William Wade, the well-known and generous friend of all the deaf-blind in the country. The reception was in every way a pleasant affair and a credit to the deaf under whose management it was held. A beautiful brooch presented to Miss Keller by her deaf friends, will be to her ever a pleasing memento of the occasion. F. W. B.

THE MUNICH SCHOOL AND AURICULAR INSTRUCTION.[1]

G. FERRERI, ROME, ITALY.

I had been already some years ago in Munich with the express purpose of assuring myself as to the results of auricular teaching. This, my second visit to the school, directed with such ability by my friend Max Koller, was with the same object and also with the expectation of seeing what the experience of five years should show in regard to the alleged development of hearing power in the Deaf. I must say at once that in my expectation I was not disappointed, and I think I can now explain much better to my colleagues the principles and process of auricular instruction as regards theory and practice.

In regard to what experience teaches us, I must not fail to notice that experience has justified, has fully justified, me in the conclusions drawn from the comparative observations made in my previous researches.

And as all are not familiar with my pamphlet on "The Hearing Power in the Deaf" (1898), it seems appropriate to give a brief summary of those conclusions, which, wrongly as I believe, others held unfounded or hasty.

Before visiting the schools of Vienna, Munich, and Zurich I had verified in my school practice that the real advantages of auricular instruction are due to the pupil's familiarity with language, to his previous knowledge of the subject spoken of, and to his *acoustic memory* of speech, more than to a real hearing power; that is to say, that the results may not be considered as a development and improvement of preexisting remnants of hearing, but rather as a psychic combination and reintegration of the word and phrase; these having been learned by degrees according to the principles of the oral method and heard only in part and always imperfectly.

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[1]Condensed from Educazione dei Sordomuti.

This being admitted, I suggested that the teaching of speech by means of the ear should be based:

1. Upon a *differential diagnosis* of the deafness of the deaf-mute.

2. Upon an *acoustic research* in order to ascertain and describe, case by case, the field of hearing in those Deaf who possess remnants of hearing more or less appreciable.

3. Upon the *exclusion of acoustic instruments* and other sources of sound than that of speech.

My visits to the above mentioned schools suggested afterwards also the following conclusions:

1st. That auricular instruction is justified only in the case of deaf-mutes who have appreciable remnants of hearing *for speech.*

2nd. That all systematic acoustic exercises are in vain in cases of total deafness, or of hearing solely for noises, or in case of little or no intelligence in the patient.

3rd. That in every case the exercise of speech-reading be not neglected, as it is necessary to give the greatest attention to it for later progress in mental culture, as well as for the exigencies of class instruction after the preparatory period of articulation.

And now I will tell of what I found *new* in the schools of Munich.

One must note first that the question of *systematic acoustic exercises* is settled; no one speaks of them, or, if obliged to do so, only to say that they do not pay for the trouble. The *auricular instruction* alone remains.

Convinced that the auricular exercises do not in the least develop the hearing power, and that one can only attain *psychic education* of the remnants of hearing, the aurists and teachers have given their whole attention to the selection of those deaf-mutes who possess appreciable remnants of hearing and who should rather be called *hard of hearing*, or *partially deaf*. This selection having been made, they have found that in an institution of a hundred or so pupils, it is possible to form a class of about twenty, adding also to these the pupils who although they are quite deaf are not mute, as they became deaf at a certain age after they had learned language more or less by the ear.

All this has been done at Munich, where this order of pupils is divided into two classes, but are soon to be divided into three, based upon the degree of advancement they have acquired in the use of language.

The instruction is given in the common manner, but the teacher stands before a table around which are seated the pupils. The greatest distance between the teacher and the most remote of the pupils must not exceed a yard or at the most a yard and a half.

At Munich they understand that the *memory of speech* results from *various partial memories*; and is not due to the sole *acoustic memory,* which, especially in the deaf and semi-deaf, is always very imperfect; but instead it is based upon a combination of this with the *visual,* the *motor-articulate,* and the *graphic memories.* These last two partial memories complete the work little by little as the pupils learn language.

Prof. Bezold, however, has had a very happy idea in regard to getting the greatest possible profit from the visual memory of speech. Although at first the auricular exercises might be considered injurious to speech-reading, now they are simply a supplement to it, based upon sensorial association and mental perception.

Prof. Bezold's invention does honor not only to his intelligence, but is a sign as well of his affection for the Deaf. He has understood that the deaf-mute, even when he possesses appreciable remnants of hearing, must be taught speech-reading. Thus his invention has the immediate advantage of the association and combination of visual and acoustic images, and the later advantage of the social state of the pupil. The invention of Prof. Bezold is this:

To each pupil in the special class for auricular instruction is given a hand-mirror; many pupils have it fastened to their neck during the lesson, so as easily to reach it with the hand every time that the teacher speaks to their better ear. It is unnecessary to say that the combination of the images of the word—visual and acoustic—occur simultaneously, abbreviating and facilitating the means of communication and of instruction.

One may therefore sum up in a few words the object and

result of this special instruction by saying that "it is no longer directed to developing the hearing power, but instead to the combination of the various forms of language."

Here one finds as usual, that *hearing* does not mean *intelligence*, because while not all the semi-deaf are the best in the class, those who became deaf in childhood and who know a certain number of words and phrases follow the instruction without having an actual acoustic memory of speech, with the same and often better results than the first mentioned.

This has kept me in the doubt, which I have so often expressed, whether it is really worth while to make this selection and establish a special class, especially in small institutions.

What remains unquestioned is the importance of the acoustic examinations of each new pupil, both upon his admission to the school, and after he has remained some months in it.

I can speak with knowledge of such an examination, thanks to the courtesy of Prof. Bezold, who, when he knew of my wish, most kindly anticipated some of his experiments so that I might be present at them.

The morning of the day fixed upon, there were present at the Institution besides Prof. Bezold, his assistant Dr. Wanner and two assistant physicians from the clinic. The Principal and a teacher were also present at the acoustic examination of two pupils recently admitted to the school.

When the objective examination and the oto-laryngoscopic one of the patient were finished, Prof. Bezold began his experiments upon the hearing power. I must confess that I was deeply impressed with the tact, the patience, the gentleness, and the scrupulously scientific precision with which Prof. Bezold devoted two and three hours to the examination of one sole individual.

The experiment is made with the continuous series of tones by means of a battery of tuning-forks (Bezold system) corresponding to the scale of simple sounds. Then they passed to the whistle of the organ and to that of Galton, and finally to speech; to this, however, only in the cases, and only for such sounds, where a hearing power had been discovered in the previous examination.

As to speech, they follow this rule. First they try the

vowels *a-e-i-*; then the vowels *o-u*; then the modified vowels *oe*, ü, etc. They then pass on to the consonants, and they register the exchange of one tone for another made by the pupil. Finally they experiment with numbers, words, and sentences, if the hearing is sufficiently appreciable to recognize a series of connected sounds.

The experiment is directed first of all to establish *which* sounds are perceived, and then they are repeated to ascertain the *length* of the sensation. As regards this, Prof. Bezold drew my attention to the fact that the existence of an acoustic remnant for a tone was not the same as the hearing of this tone by a normal person. In fact the same tone while it can be perceived by a normal hearing person for the length of a minute, is perceived by the deaf-mute for only two or three seconds. Now this difference explains the phenomenon of the failure on the part of the deaf-mute to learn certain sounds for which one had discovered he had the hearing power, and it serves also to explain the confusion made by physicians and teachers in regard to the difference between congenital and total deafness. In this, too, I think I have found the reason of the phenomenon which until now I supposed derived from physical weariness.

The result of the experiment was described in appropriate lined diagrams where is seen in the scale of the proportional relation with normal hearing, the degree and extension of the existing points (islands) of the field of hearing of each organ. The empty spaces therefore indicate the points, or rather the *gaps*, in the hearing which is lacking. These diagrams, which might be compared to those used for the representation of the field of sight, serve also as a guide for the teacher. In fact, one sees them fastened to the walls of the school-room with the name of the pupil given to whom they refer. The presence of these diagrams serves to remind the teacher which sounds every pupil can hear, and how he ought to regulate the school exercises. Thus they can avoid insisting uselessly upon vowels and consonants which cannot be perceived, and direct the whole attention to making the most, with economy of time and energy, of the existing remnants of hearing.

These diagrams render another good service, which is to demonstrate in an irrefutable manner that the hearing power which

is lacking cannot be restored, and that the remnants of hearing verified in the first examination remain exactly the same as regards the *physical* function, in spite of years and years of acoustic exercises.

In conclusion, auricular instruction as practiced in the Munich schools has these objects:

1st. To *direct* the pupil's attention to the hearing power which he possesses and which would remain unobserved, and hence unused, if he were not taught by the oral method;

2nd. To *find,* in the more fortunate cases, an appropriate stimulus for the training of the voice in speech;

3rd. To *adapt* this stimulus, by means of an accomodation depending upon the will and intelligence of the pupil, to the learning of speech, and eventually to its modulation and accentuation;

4th. To *associate* the acoustic memory with the visual, and motor-articulate memories (and later with the motor-graphic one) of speech and language.

The attainment of this object is an inestimable benefit for an average percentage, which varies from 15 to 20 (according to my opinion), of all those individuals qualified as deaf-mutes and admitted without distinction to our schools. This average, although as yet undetermined, is such as to justify a special treatment for the Deaf with appreciable remnants of hearing.

I consider the percentage inferior to that indicated by Koller and Bezold (25 to 30), for the reason that I regard as a class by themselves that formed of children who became deaf after having learned, even in the least degree, spoken language. For such I maintain the necessity for special instruction for various reasons, among which I will at present establish the two principal ones:

1. The shorter space of time necessary for their elementary instruction compared with the course necessary for the deaf-mute.

2. The most natural process of their psychic development as regards the form, elaboration, and expression of thought, and this based upon the adaptation already initiated, of the inherited organic tendencies.

In conclusion it must be understood that at Munich they do not give acoustic exercises, and much less the gymnastic auricular exercises, with the object of the *physical improvement* of the hearing power, but instead, they seek to obtain a *pyschic education* of the remnants of hearing, with the aim of facilitating (by combining and associating the various images of speech) the learning of articulated language. And this Principal Koller and Prof. Bezold would wish to be understood by all those who interest themselves today in this subject.

"A RECOMMENDED NOVELTY"—A REPLY.

In the October issue of THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, Prof. J. G. De Vries of Groningen, Holland, has criticised certain statements made by me, in regard to the development of speech and the training of the voices of deaf children. He has misquoted me in one important point and has apparently misunderstood me in another. He has, moreover, spoken of the method as "a recommended novelty." I should like to state to him, and to all the readers of THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, that the so-called "novelty" is not a novelty at all, but has been used in our school [the Horace Mann School, Boston,] for the past ten years, with very satisfactory results, and, through us, has gone out to others who have practiced it with equal success. As this has been the case, it seems unnecessary to discuss the matter further.

SARAH JORDAN MONRO.

CONTEMPORARY THOUGHT.

APHASIA IN A CHILD.

The following interesting case is reported by G. Mayor, Director of the Institution Sophienhöhe, near Jena, Germany.

K. is a boy 8 years old, born of healthy parents. The grandparents also were healthy. There were in the family no neuropathic troubles, no disturbances of speech. The birth was normal. During pregnancy the mother saw a rat in the cellar, got frightened, and swooned. K. did not have any of the usual diseases of children. A gathering in the larynx was removed by an operation. His development, however, was very slow; he did not learn to walk till his third or fourth year; speech did not develop till the sixth year, and the understanding of speech was not observed till the seventh year. He could only say a few words like "papa," "table," "hat," "chair." Otherwise he was continually uttering inarticulate sounds. Of the words only "papa" was spoken distinctly; of the others he only spoke the first consonant and vowel, e. g., "ta" (table), "ha" (hat), "cha" (chair). The parents endeavored in vain to make him speak.

When I first learned to know this boy, he was physically well developed, and had a good healthy complexion. Nothing anomalous could be discovered in his body. Only his organs of speech showed serious defects. He had a strongly prognathic upper jaw; the lower middle incisors formed an obtuse angle and receded backwards; the lower eye teeth were disproportionately large. All this prevented him from closing his teeth tight; the palate was unusually high; he could stretch out his tongue, but could not keep it still, and could not make any regular motions with it; his hearing was good. The boy made a comparatively intelligent impression. He appeared to observe, hear, and see everything. Simple errands he also did satisfactorily. When requested, he pointed out the head, nose, hands, etc., also the door and the windows. He knew objects individually, but in combinations of objects he seemed lost. He was not sure in recognizing the colors, and often made mistakes in naming them. The ideas of space: before, behind, below, etc., were lacking com-

pletely, likewise the ideas of size: long, short, thick, etc. The feeling of touch was not developed; after having touched objects while blindfolded, he could not point them out when the cover was removed from his eyes. He was also afflicted with acoustic defects; when blindfolded he could not always distinguish the sound of a piano from that of a violin, a trumpet, etc.; he could not localize the sounds. At the same time he was musical, and could sing or rather hum correctly a tune after having heard it once or twice.

His walk was uncertain and awkward, whilst the muscles of the hands and fingers were tolerably well developed; he could make a fist, spread his fingers, and button his jacket, though in rather an awkward manner; he could not stand on one leg; and ate in a very awkward way.

K. was suffering from innate aphasia (hörstummheit). How is this lack of speech to be explained? For the normal development of speech there are needed: normal organs of speech, a sufficient sense of hearing, and a sufficient degree of intelligence. The last mentioned is the most important. If a child cannot distinguish and retain the individual sounds, it will never get beyond the first stage of the normal development of speech. K. did not—because he could say "papa,"—reaching through the second stage of imitation, the ability of speaking "words with which he connected some idea;" for the whole day long he babbled "papa, papa;" and if he was asked anything, he generally answered "papa," or produced combinations of sounds which no one could understand. To learn to speak, it is not sufficient to receive the sounds by the ear and to retain them—acoustic attention and acoustic memory—but the eye must see the motions of speech; the motorial attention must control their rendition, and the motorial memory must store away the respective sensations of the muscles. A normal child looks at the lips of the speaker, follows every movement, and endeavors to imitate them. Everything that is going on in the outer world necessarily interests the child; it sees and hears much; and very little escapes its attention. It is astonishing how attentively a child watches everything, and how firmly and securely it stores the impressions in its memory.

It is totally different with the aphasic child. It observes, sees, and hears little or nothing. It is not able to distinguish and retain the motions of our lips, tongue, etc., has, therefore, no conscious sensations, consequently no impressions in its memory; and can, therefore, not reproduce, and not speak. Let us now return to our boy K. He had reached the second stage of speech-development, the imitations; he could speak sounds and combinations of sounds; he even could say "papa," so that every

one could understand it; but he did not get any further. He mostly understood what was said to him, knew many objects in his surroundings, and satisfactorily did errands entrusted to him. This presupposes that he has understood the whole sentence. Why then does he not speak, considering that he possesses some understanding of speech? His eyes did not follow the motions of speech; he could, therefore, not imitate them or store up the respective sensations of the muscles. What was lacking in him was, therefore, motorial attention and memory.

The treatment to which I subjected K. was the following: In the first place I endeavored to awaken his interest in speech. The main point in this is to gain the confidence of the child from the very outset; the child must love to come to the speech-lesson. For this it is necessary to be as affable and patient as possible. The point will be gained best if you descend to the mental level of the child, if you engage him in what interests him, if you play with him. It will not be very long before the child is deeply interested. This end will be reached all the sooner if you select objects which the child does not know yet, or which it has not yet seen in this form. These first demonstrations should be as lively and drastic as possible. In no manner whatever must the child be compelled to engage in a game or occupation, or to speak. This is the greatest mistake which can be made. Above every thing else, the child must feel free. Everything you do should be done as if it was done to interest yourself, or to amuse yourself. The words you speak must be easy to pronounce. If you succeed in this playing of comedy, it may happen that the children imitate sounds during the very first hour. This happened with K. Not seldom the children imitate the sounds when they are by themselves. K. was deeply interested; he not only paid close attention to the words, but also to the motions of the lips. We now took a walk, and I mentioned the names of the various objects which we saw eight to ten times in succession, but never asked him to speak. Returning to the house I showed him objects in the room and large pictures of objects. K. now often attempted to imitate the words. I now presumed that a sufficient number of optic pictures had been stored up and that a sufficient number of impressions of sounds had been received in the sensorial center. I, therefore, commenced to practice sounds with K., first the simple vowels, then their combinations with consonants, gradually going on to simple one syllable words, finally words of two or three syllables. In investigating the central capacities, we had clearly placed all the defects of the boy, and knew, therefore, what was to be practiced, viz., to distinguish sounds, forms, colors, relations of size, space, and location, the understanding of sen-

tences, the recognition of objects in large connected representations. To remove the defects of the tactic sphere, I exercised the muscles of the hands, arms, and the entire body. Such exercises strengthen and vivify the body. Much exercise in the open air (e. g., garden work) cannot be too highly recommended. Care should, however, be taken not to overtax the strength of the children. This easily happens, because most people do not realize that an aphasic child also in many other respects occupies a much lower level of intellectual development than other children. In the above described manner we have obtained satisfactory results with K. and other similar children.—[Die Kinderfehler.]

THE DANISH GOVERNMENT INSTITUTION FOR PERSONS SUFFERING FROM IMPEDIMENTS OF SPEECH.

This institution has now (1904) been in existence for six years. It is under the supervision of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and has a Director (for the time being, the Director of the Royal Danish Institution for the deaf, Rev. F. Heiberg), who is assisted by a special physician, a teacher, and three assistant teachers (one male and two female), and a gentleman who has charge of the pupils outside of school hours.

The institution has three divisions. The first embraces stutterers who are instructed ten at a time, and who, during the four weeks that the course lasts, board at the Royal Institution for the Deaf, in one of whose rooms instruction is given. They are instructed according to the method originally introduced by Dr. Chervin. During each fiscal year from 90 to 100 stutterers have, on an average, been instructed. The pupils pay 25 kroner ($6.70) for the course—including instruction, board, and lodging; but there are free or partially free places, which have been established by benevolent persons. Sutterers who live in Copenhagen are requested—after they have finished their course—to attend the repetition courses held on Sunday afternoon.

The second division is intended for persons suffering from defects of various kinds of pronunciation, e. g., snuffling, lisping, imperfect pronunciation of one or several consonants, indistinct pronunciation, etc. In this division are also placed the comparatively rare cases of aphasia. The pupils in this division are instructed in one large class; the instruction, however, varying in

each individual case according to the nature, age, and mental development of each pupil. The length of the course, therefore, naturally varies a good deal. The fee varies from 6 to 15 kroner ($1.60 to $4.00). The pupils of this division only board at the institution if their home is not in Copenhagen, and their parents are unable to pay their board at some boarding house in the city.

The third division, which was only established last year, is intended exclusively for persons suffering from fissure of the palate. There are admitted both persons where the fissure has been sewed together by an operation—simply to improve the pronunciation—and persons (which are in the majority) where it is desirable that the fissure should be subjected to special treatment by the insertion of a tube, or where such treatment has already been applied. The treatment in this division generally consists of three parts: the first, in which the palate, throat, and the parts near to them are prepared for the insertion of the tube, by removing anomalous swellings of the mucous membrane. The second part consists in the insertion of the tube. The third part embraces speaking exercises. This part varies in duration according to the size of the fissure of the palate, the command over the muscles of the palate and throat possessed by each pupil, etc., but it will never be shorter than a month, and it is absolutely necessary that the pupil should continue the speaking exercises after returning to his home. This third division is intended exclusively for indigent persons, and no pay is asked from them. During the fiscal year 1902-1903, the Danish Government appropriated 3900 kroner ($1145) for the institution; and during the fiscal year 1903-1904, 2000 kroner ($536) has been appropriated for the newly established third division.

It should be added that the examinations of the institution are public, that any person interested in the subject may be a visitor at the courses in the different divisions; and that several exhibitions have been given before the finance committee of the Danish Parliament, before physicians and others.—[Nordisk Tidskrift för Döfstumskolan.]

THE INSTRUCTION OF BACKWARD DEAF-MUTES —A CORRECTION.

An American friend informs me that my address delivered at Frankfort-on-the-Main has led to the opinion in America that I am an advocate of the American Combined System. Such an opinion can be entertained only by one who did not himself hear my address, and who, because he does not know me, draws erro-

neous conclusions from what has been reported here or there concerning my address. By "the poorest of the poor," to whom not only would I permit, but for whom I would advocate, the use of the sign language—not of the manual alphabet—I did not at all mean those of the deaf who are capable of receiving a satisfactory education (the A, B, C pupils, as they are commonly called in Germany); I meant the mentally sub-normal deaf-mutes who stand far below these, and who, after a more or less prolonged trial in schools for the deaf, are finally sent to institutions for the feeble-minded, where, however, on account of their deafness, they do not properly belong. As my subject at Frankfort was not "methods," it was not necessary for me there to make this explanation in detail. The subject assigned me was "The Education of the Deaf for Human Society." The deaf who are capable of education belong after leaving school to the community of people who have all the senses, not to the world of silence. It is, therefore, not only unnecessary, but positively harmful, to make them acquainted with the sign language, as is done under the Combined System.

The intellectually inferior "poorest of the poor," however, find after leaving school no fitting place in the community of people who have all the senses. For them I should regard it as a great benefit if they could be gathered in a colony. In such a colony our spoken language would probably never be the ordinary means of communication. Therefore, I consider it unnecessary during the school period to carry them so far in spoken language as "to torment them with the learning of speech," as *must* be done in German schools for the deaf. There would then remain time enough to train them up to be cheerful and capable workers, as *can* be done in our schools for deaf children. But like any other human being, the intellectually inferior deaf-mute needs *spiritual* food. To him this cannot be given satisfactorily in after life through our spoken language. *What* language this shall be we must leave to the future, for our contemporaries will scarcely live to see intellectually inferior deaf-mutes satisfactorily provided for in school and in life.—[Otto Danger, of Emden, Germany, to the editor of the American Annals.]

THE ACQUISITION OF SPEECH.

It is true that in institutions for the deaf a good many subjects are taught by which the acquisition of speech by the pupils is but little furthered. The main cause are our text books, which contain too much and go too much into details. It is said that

each institution is allowed to make its own selection from the great mass of text books. But it should be kept in mind that, after the books have once been introduced, the distribution of the subjects naturally is arranged with due regard to these books. In examinations for instance, the portions laid down in the text books will invariably be considered as the bulk of knowledge. The stimulating influence of reading pieces, which furnishes so rich a material for the acquisition of speech, would be much greater if it was not crowded out by the mass of different subjects. With the view of facilitating a suitable method for acquiring speech, we would plead for simple and precise text books, and the abolition of all examinations. This will afford some aid, but it will not remedy all evils. The greatest difficulty is, above everything else, found in the common instruction of talented and backward children. Some separation will have to be made sooner or later in all institutions for the deaf. This will be found more difficult in small institutions, for there we would finally have as many teachers as scholars; and the best way would be to unite some of the smaller institutions of a neighborhood into one large one, where the separation can be easily made.

Privy-Counsellor Sägert used to say, "Many people when building a house, want to begin with the external decorations from the lowest story; they should do the rough work of building, and then add the decorations!" He spoke the truth in applying this figurative speech to the instruction of the deaf. Even in the lowest grades words, which are mere forms are used extensively as if they were indispensable; and people think this is child-like and natural. For the child possessed of all its senses it is natural, for it babbles what it hears; whilst the deaf child does not speak after the teacher in a playful manner, but with an exertion. We can also get the deaf child to speak cheerfully, at least relatively so, but the road for accomplishing this will always be a difficult one, whether we choose the freest possible acquisition of speech, or one bound to certain forms and subjects. The question is only, which way is the safest. The safest way will always be the one which does most justice to systematic repetition. Repetition is the only means of strengthening all newly acquired forms; it is the true way of acquiring speech. (But if speech is taught in an entirely free manner, without following certain forms, true repetition becomes problematical.) To-day, for instance, the subject is the birthday of some pupil or teacher, tomorrow a case of death, the next day some excursion or show, and on the same day other subjects of conversation freely offer themselves. How can there be a true and beneficial repetition, if the situation of the moment is always to furnish the subject

of conversation, as such a situation cannot always be brought about at will. By enthusiastic and interesting teaching the pupil may be made to take an interest in subjects—given in the text books—more remote from his immediate observation, so that he becomes impressed with the idea that nothing in the world is more interesting than the subject before him at the time; and here the possibility of repetition furnishes a guarantee for firmly fixing the subject in the mind of the pupil.

It is, of course, difficult to carry out this method of acquiring speech, if only one class of the institution follows it, whilst all the others adhere strictly to the prescribed course. If the teacher of this class is suddenly removed or becomes sick, and a new teacher takes the class, he will either find the field open for further work, or he will be considerably confused. The latter is more probable; for a class which has been taught in this free manner should always retain the same teacher. Even more, the pupils should live together with the teacher in school and house, until the end of schocling. That would be an ideal arrangement; but, as far as known, there are no institutions in Germany whose pupils live with their teachers in families. Most of our boarding institutions have not even room for married teachers.

It was stated above that one may reach free speech even on the basis of certain well defined subjects. The objection is raised that this language will be a book-language, and that the book-language is an enemy to free speech; but this is not as bad as represented, and in most cases we will find in books the language of every day life. We must not forget that, as regards their further education, the deaf must rely on reading. How few families do we find which try to advance the deaf after they have left school. An adult deaf, who reads a great deal, said once: "What aid do I find among the members of my family, who shun the trouble of talking to me? Only by reading I can advance." Owing to this very fact that our dear fellow beings shun the trouble of talking to the deaf, we cannot expect that the deaf are always properly understood. We see instances every day of well speaking deaf being put in the background. At a charity fair I met a deaf lady, educated by an excellent teacher, and who could speak very well. After having left her and wandering a little further, I overheard a conversation between two ladies who knew the deaf lady very well. One of them said: "Oh, there is that deaf lady again! I always find such difficulty in understanding her; let us try to avoid her!" This is a typical case. Even in families, people are often glad if they can employ the deaf in anything else rather than conversation. Some book is given to them; and people think they have thereby done all in their power. Should

such sad instances—and there are many of them—induce us not to cultivate the spoken language? By no means! But we learn therefrom that the deaf in after life must principally look to reading, and therein find an indemnity for the lacking conversation. It will therefore be best to concede their right both to the book language and the conversational language; then, speech will become at once a basis both for reading and for everyday life.—[Blätter für Taubstummenbildung.]

THE CHURCH FOR THE DEAF IN COPENHAGEN.

Three years ago it was proposed to erect a special church building for the deaf. Divine services had of course been held all along in various places. It had been the hope of the well wishers of this plan that the Government would extend some pecuniary aid; but for various reasons the Folkething (the Danish Parliament) failed, at several sessions, to make the necessary appropriation; so the three societies for the deaf at Copenhagen, bestirred themselves and agreed each to raise the sum of 9000 kroner ($2412). Mr. Scholdann, a builder, who had taken a lively interest in the matter from the very beginning, collected a similar sum among his friends; so a lot could be bought, and on the 14th of June, 1904, the foundation was laid with solemn exercises in the presence of many high officials, members of the Ministry of Public Instruction, and clergymen. It is expected that the building to be finished in autumn, will become the spiritual home of the deaf of Copenhagen, and prove a blessing for many generations. For the present, the clergyman (Lutheran) connected with the Royal Institution for the Deaf, will—when the building is finished—hold divine service regularly every Sunday.—[Smaablade for Dövstumme.]

THE INSTITUTION PRESS.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNED ONLY THROUGH ITS PRACTICE.

Superintendent Yates, of the Arkansas school for the deaf, in speaking of his work in teaching speech says, "*Practice, practice*, is all important. Speech pupils do not get the practice they so much need, in a school regulated as ours now is. They cannot get it; they never will get it until they are placed in a separate and distinct department of their own and there encouraged to *talk, talk, talk*, from morning until night." Isn't this argument just as applicable to the acquisition of English? If deaf children are to learn to use English with facility, ought they not to practice it "from morning until night." Signs are not English and if signs are used altogether out of class, there is left but mighty little time when the pupil can practice with freedom and spontaneity the use of the English language.—The Mentor (N. Y.)

A more profound statement never was made than this—THE WANT OF PRACTICE. By keeping in close touch with even the more advanced pupils you will find that they use a comparatively limited amount of English from the time they leave the class room until their return the next day, enough perhaps to amount to ten minutes regular conversation. Ask any of the older pupils to make a clear statement of the amount of English they have used since the previous day, and you will be convinced that you are facing a serious problem.

Then again, taking into consideration the fact that in the advanced classes the pupil is not using language directly a great deal of the time, the limited amount of English that he actually uses during the *entire* day is not sufficient for him to become at all proficient in the use of it.

We may discuss methods pro and con, oral, manual, combined, or otherwise, but unless English is used from sun till sun, cellar to garret, *inside and outside* of the class rooms, by all both great and small, the way of the language teacher will continue to be hard and the advancement of a real love for literature slow and unsatisfactory.—B. in the Deaf Carolinian (N. C.)

Within the same period (the last two decades) there has been a decided movement to use the manual alphabet as a means of instruction. One large school and departments in two others, these last among the largest in the country, have made it, with writing, the basis of instruction. In many other schools individual instructors have striven to implant the habit of its use among pupils. The movement is sound in reason and powerful in effort. When a pupil tries to tell in words his wants, pleasures, woes, emotions, and adventures, he tries to think in words; and when he has gained the power to think in words and express his thought in the words with measurable clearness, his education is already half accomplished. This, therefore, is another development which merits the hearty appreciation and aid of all the deaf. —Dr. Amos G. Draper, in a paper read at the Congress of the Deaf at St. Louis.

SPELLING IN CHAPEL.

A very interesting discussion has been going on in the school papers as to the use of manual spelling in conducting chapel services. For the majority of the pupils there is no reason why these services should not be conducted by manual spelling. They will probably get as clear, if not a better, understanding of the subject through manual spelling than if the services were conducted in signs, beside the help it gives in the acquisition of language. But spelling pre-supposes a knowledge of language and there are a number of the pupils who have a very small amount of language who could be reached much more easily and better through the sign language. One reason urged against manual spelling in the chapel is the difficulty in reading the spelling at a distance and also that the eyes of the pupils become tired from the same reason. That difficulty can easily be overcome by using the double hand alphabet instead of the single hand. The double hand spelling can easily be read at a distance and the eyes do not become tired reading it. For the first few years that we were connected with the work of teaching the deaf, we used the double hand alphabet in chapel exercises with fair success.

Just as soon as signs are dropped from the class room and teachers and pupils are imbued with the spelling spirit, and not until then, we may dispense with the use of signs in chapel services.—Rocky Mountain Leader (Mont.)

EDITORIAL COMMENT.

SOME SCHOOLS VISITED.

On our recent journey to and from St. Louis, we took advantage of opportunities to stop off and make side trips for the purpose of visiting a number of schools. The schools visited were in their turn, the Columbus, Ohio, school, the St. Louis day-school, the Jacksonville, Ill., school, the Faribault, Minn., school, the Milwaukee, Wis., day-school, and the Cleveland, Ohio, day-school, six schools in all. Our stay at each school was necessarily brief, but as all doors were open to us we were able to see a great deal of the work of each school and to bring away with us more or less vivid impressions of it in its character and the degree of its excellence.

Needless to say that in this group of schools we saw oral work of the purest kind, and manual work of the purest, and both oral and manual variously combined; and needless to say too, with regard to the oral work, that the speech and lip-reading observed were decidedly best where the oral method is practiced in its purest form, and poorest where the sign-language is most tolerated and most relied upon for communication and instruction purposes. Another fact observed was, that in schools having both pure oral and pure manual classes, wherever there was generally good lip-reading in oral classes, there was at the same time good hand reading, or good response to manual spelling, in the manual classes, and vice versa, thus indicating that the spirit of English language practice, when present at all, prevails generally throughout a school and is not limited to classes, or to a single department.

In all our tests—and we made so far as we could the same tests, using speech or manual spelling, in all the schools visited—we gave our chief attention to the average and the below average pupils, who form the great body of the pupils of every school.

The bright semi-mutes and the few brilliant congenitals interest us, but only as individuals, for they are no strain upon a method, and any accomplishment they show is rather to their own credit and the credit of zealous teachers, than proof of the method that happens to have been employed in their teaching. Such pupils do well under any fairly good method intelligently applied, in spite of handicaps or unfavorable conditions surrounding its use. It is the average and the below average pupils who put the heavy, testing strain upon a method, and their accomplishment must be the final proof accepted as determinative of every question involved in their instruction. Hence our interest always in such pupils in the schools that we visit, and hence, too, the special attention we give to them in our studies of conditions and methods.

On the whole, we may say of our visits to the several schools, that they were enjoyable in the extreme, and that what we saw interested us in its every feature. In some of the schools the work is in a state of transition—the oral work increasing and the manual decreasing—hence it is in an unsettled state and many situations are tentative and experimental. This means conditions in all departments extremely trying, and that require time, study, and effort to bring to proper readjustment and to the full realization of possibilities that all have in view.

We can not close without expressing our appreciation of the very kind and cordial reception that was ours at every school visited from everybody, from Superintendent down to the youngest child; and we can only hope that our visits gave a small fraction at least of the pleasure and of the profit that we received.

F. W. B.

The New Brunswick school, at St. John, has secured the services of an experienced teacher for its Superintendent in the person of Mr. W. J. Stewart, formerly of the Belfast, Ireland, school, and later of the Edgewood Park, Penn., school. We understand the school opens under favorable conditions for its success.

WHY AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF ARE SUPERIOR.

American visitors to European schools for the Deaf, in most of which the Oral method of instruction is employed, have commented upon the inferiority of results obtained there when compared with what is accomplished in our own schools. At international conventions of the Deaf it has likewise been observed that those in attendance from America are superior in intelligence and educational acquirements to those of other countries. This difference has been attributed to the methods employed here and abroad and has been one of the principal arguments of those who favor the Combined method. In Chapter III of "American Institutions for the Education of the Deaf," by G. Ferreri, printed in this number of THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW, it is clearly demonstrated that the variation in results should rather be attributed to the superior system of grading, the longer period of instruction, and, in general, the better facilities provided in American schools. We would recommend a careful perusal of the article by those who are interested in an honest determination of this question of Sign or Oral instruction. It is in line with our own suggestion, made some years ago, that the better method was to be determined by a comparison of the results obtained in the representative schools of our own country rather than by a study of foreign schools. S. G. D.

There will be general and hearty approval of the action of the St. Louis Exposition authorities in the awarding to Mr. William Wade of a gold medal in recognition of "his benefactions to deaf-blind children and for his untiring zeal in finding out and providing education for such children in the United States." It is very largely a result of Mr. Wade's interest and labors that so many deaf-blind children in the United States have been given the priceless blessing of education in the past ten years, and the award is therefore one eminently appropriate and fittingly bestowed.

AN ENGLISH TEACHER ON SPELLING IN CHAPEL.

We take the liberty of giving the folllowing extract from a personal letter to the editor, written by one of the leading teachers of the Deaf in England. It expresses—we can not but believe—the thought of very many teachers who, amidst the difficulties and discouragements of their work, are sufficiently broad of mind and large of heart to be encouraged and made glad by every advancement made by others in the great work of educating the deaf, no matter in what school or under what method the advancement is effected:

"This number of the REVIEW [the October number] is a particularly interesting one. I am very glad to see that finger spelling is being substituted for signs in the Utah school chapel, and trust the example will be widely followed, so that the pupils will gain a better grasp of English and a more certain spiritual understanding of the truths taught by its means."

We may say for the information of our correspondent that the practice of spelling in chapel is followed not alone by the Utah school in this country, but as well by the Rochester, N. Y., school—the pioneer school in the practice—and the Malone, N. Y., school; also, to an extent, by the Morganton, N. C., school, the Cedar Spring, S. C., school, and, we believe, the St. Augustine, Fla., school. The Mt. Airy, Pa., school, too, continues to give, as it has given for a number of years, religious instruction through manual spelling to about thirty of its pupils.

F. W. B.

THE MODEL SCHOOLS AT ST. LOUIS.

The classes of deaf children that we saw at the St. Louis Exposition during our week there—an advanced oral class from the Missouri school, an intermediate oral class from the Illinois school, and an art class from the Nebraska school—were certainly a most interesting attraction to the hundreds of visitors who daily thronged about them, and the excellent work that was shown will be educative to the general public upon the subject of the instruction of the deaf and its possibilities to an extent that will greatly increase public knowledge of it and interest in

it throughout the country. Much credit is due for the success of the Model School feature of the Fair to Mr. Alvin E. Pope, who was in immediate charge of it, and he is to be congratulated upon the work that he has accomplished and the good that he has done. F. W. B.

THE ACOUSTICON AT THE ST. LOUIS EXPOSITION.

The exhibit of the acousticon at the St. Louis Exposition, with demonstrations with deaf children from the McCowen Oral School of Chicago, drew large audiences. The children—possessing naturally more or less hearing—were apparently able to hear and understand more with than without the instruments, both in the tests that we witnessed and in those that we made; and the teachers in charge of the demonstrations assured us that the children, in the time that they had been under training, had shown actual and measurable improvement in their appreciation and understanding of heard language. So far as it goes, all this is evidence and testimony in favor of the instruments, and we are glad to make record of it and to count it at its full value. But there are conditions, questions, and values other than this one of a slight addition to or strengthening of the power of hearing, that demand consideration, and these we confess leave us in our original state of doubt as to the real practicability and value of the instruments for use in our schools. Still, we remain open to conviction upon this point, and we await future developments and the improvements in the instruments that time will undoubtedly bring. F. W. B.

The Michigan school, at Flint, recently celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of its founding; and Mr. R. Mathison, of the Belleville, Ontario, school, has just completed his first quarter of a century of efficient service in the office of Superintendent.

THE TEXAS TEACHERS AT NORTHAMPTON.

The following taken from the Texas school paper, is from the pen of Principal J. W. Blattner, who, with a number of his teachers, made the pilgrimage from Texas to Massachusetts, last summer, to study the work and methods of the Northampton school. The month spent at the school in studying, not only theories, but the actual and continuous practice of them in the hourly and daily work and routine of the school, enables Mr. Blattner to give testimony as positive as it is strong, and, moreover, testimony that none will question as prejudiced, coming as it does from a man who practices in his school, and who has practiced for a quarter of a century, methods quite other than the one that he so warmly commends. It is unnecessary for us to say more, except to express our strong hope that others in the work will emulate the example of the Texas teachers and make effort at least to secure the benefit of the same privileges of observation and the same course of study that they secured. But read what Mr. Blattner says:—F. W. B.]

"As forecasted in this paper last June, the Principal and nine teachers went to Northampton, Mass., at the close of our school to take a special course of training and observation in speech teaching at the Clarke school for the deaf. They arrived there about two weeks before the close of that school, and had thus a good opportunity of seeing it in operation. Miss Yale and her assistants gave them a cordial welcome and the freedom of their school. In the daily observation they saw much of the routine work of the classes, and gathered many a useful idea as to the methods pursued. In the primary department, under Miss Leonard, they observed the methods pursued in sense training and the first steps in the teaching of speech and written language. In the intermediate department, under Miss Gawith, they saw the Northampton methods of teaching written and spoken language applied to higher grades, together with excellent word in numbers, natural history, and the beginnings of geography. The advanced department under the immediate supervision of the Principal, Miss Yale, presented a continuation of the methods of language teaching and very fine work in geography, history, and arithmetic. The spoken and written language work from the primary to the highest grades was so adjusted that it dovetailed and harmonized thoroughly. There seemed to be little written work anywhere without its spoken complement. The

results secured in speech and the command of English, as observed by our teachers without bias, are most excellent.

"Miss Yale informed us in the start that no part of intellectual development was sacrificed to speech, that the ultimate aim is education, mental development, to which every phase and feature of the work must contribute. This, she said, was and always had been the policy of the school.

"Such a claim would seem rather extreme to those who oppose the pure-oral method, but candor compels us to say that our two weeks' observation of the class-work, during which time we were given an exposition of the methods pursued in the school, from the lowest to the highest grades, and of the attainments of the pupils, went a great way toward confirming the claim. Indeed, we do not hesitate to praise all the work seen at the Clarke school. The results attained in the English branches and in speech are, in a word, fine. There is an air of study, thought, and refinement about the whole place, and the zeal, the *esprit de corps* of officers and teachers, is worthy of imitation. We go further and say, with no desire to reflect upon the good work done anywhere, that representatives of other schools, and among them not a few of our boasted combined-system schools, may learn lessons of great value from this pure-oral school at Northampton. Our self-esteem will even allow us to confess that we did. The ideas gathered up in school-room, shop, chapel, and dining-room at the Clarke school, and the special instruction received during our month's stay there, will be an aid and an inspiration to us in the years to come, and will certainly manifest themselves in improved results at this school.

"Space will not permit us to speak in detail of the things seen and done there by our party. The first two weeks we were given two hours a day of observation in the class-rooms and two hours of instruction in the technique of speech teaching and grade work. The last two weeks the latter was increased to four hours a day. The special instruction was given by Misses Yale and Gawith. The course was so adjusted that this instruction was largely reinforced by demonstration in the class-rooms. We were kept busy during our stay there. Indeed, so anxious were Miss Yale and her assistants that we should gain as much as possible, that more material was hurled at us than we could well assimilate.

"The kind attentions and courtesy shown us by these estimable ladies and by everyone with whom we came in contact at Northampton are deserving of special mention. Our visit there will always be remembered with pleasure."

A LAYMAN'S VIEW OF THE CONTROVERSY OVER METHODS IN CHICAGO.

The following editorial from a Chicago daily paper of recent date, gives the layman view of the merits of the controversy that recently took place before the Chicago Board of Education over methods of teaching the deaf. It is an unusually clear and fair statement of the points at issue, and the conclusion arrived at is eminently philosophical and one that all can accept with good grace.—F. W. B.]

"Reports of the clash beween the advocates of different systems for teaching the deaf, at a meeting of the School Management Committee of the School Board, have given the general public some hint of the intensity of feeling over the subjects under dispute. What occurred, however, was a mere incident in a campaign that has been going on for years and that has never been open to the charge of apathy. Enthusiasm, earnestness, sincerity of conviction must be credited to all the forces engaged, and for that reason anyone who has not made a special study of the questions involved should be reluctant to pass judgment on the rival claims. It is possible, however, to trace the history of the warfare without an exhibition of pernicious partisanship, and we shall note some of the developments very briefly here.

"The oral method of instruction had its earliest development in Germany, and it is called the German method, while the method of instruction by signs is called the French method. By the former pupils are taught to speak and to read the lips. One objection that has been raised against it is that it is partial and inadequate, which would, of course, make it undesirable as an exclusive system. There is abundant German testimony, however, in favor of its exclusive use, except in cases where pupils are suffering from some bodily defect other than deafness that might interfere with lip reading and speaking. Its adherents urge that 90 or even 95 per cent. of the deaf and dumb should be taught in no other way.

"In this country the sign and the oral method and a combination of the two have all been employed. The method first named had commended itself because it was easy of acquisition and highly interesting to both teachers and pupils. It is claimed, also, that it gives good results in many cases in which the oral method alone is not satisfactory. The idea of a combination is, therefore, a natural one; but it seems now to aggravate the controversy. It is claimed that experience proves that it has a confusing effect and actually retards progress, but its champions scout the claim.

"Noncombatants who are confused by all the methods or by what their advocates say in contradiction of one another, can at least rejoice over the earnestness and enthusiasm that are displayed in the conflict. It is the best evidence they could have of a devoted interest in a beneficent and praiseworthy work."

OBITUARY.

Mr. Frederick D. Morrison, Superintendent of the Maryland School for the Blind, and of the Maryland School for the Colored Blind and Deaf, died at St. Joseph's Hospital, Baltimore, Oct. 8, 1904, after an operation for appendicitis. Mr. Morrison was regarded as one of the foremost authorities on the education of the blind, and his loss is therefore a severe one. His work with the deaf was rather restricted, the school for the colored deaf under his control being in immediate charge of a resident Principal and Mr. Morrison giving his time and attention chiefly to the blind, in another and a distant school.

Mrs. Mary E. Unkart Foster died during the past summer. Mrs. Foster taught for three years in the New York Institution at Washington Heights, one year in a private school, one year at the Mystic Oral school, and two years at the Malone school, giving up her work to be married in June, 1903. A sister writes: "Her work was almost always with the kindergarten children, and I should judge she had been very successful."

Mr. L. S. Fechheimer passed away on July 5, 1904, in Cincinnati, Ohio, after an operation revealing the presence of cancer. Mr. Fechheimer was a life member of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf, and for some years he was an honored and a valued member of its Board of Directors. Having a deaf child, he was always interested in questions relating to the education of the deaf, and he was especially zealous in the promotion of the Oral method of instruction. Though holding no official connection with the Cincinnati Day-school for the Deaf, his influence was recognized as a power in all matters relating to its management, and his death is therefore a distinct and a deeply felt loss to the work of that school. Mr. Fechheimer was a man of lofty character and large sympathies, and he was beloved most by those who knew him most intimately. F. W. B.

Mrs. Sarah Jordan Monro's Summer Course of Instruction to Teachers and others will be given in Boston during the month of July, 1905. Address for particulars, Sarah Jordan Monro, Horace Mann School, Boston.

Teachers wishing positions and Superintendents wishing teachers may avail themselves of the office of the General Secretary of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf so far as it may be of service to them. The General Secretary aims to keep a list of teachers, and one of Superintendents, belonging to the above classes, ready for use by any person who may write for them.

A limited number of bound volumes of the REVIEW is offered to Institutions at the following rates: For Vol. I, bound in cloth. $1.00: for Vols. II, III, IV, and V, bound in cloth, $2.00 each. For prices of other publications of the Association see advertisement in this number. In order that these latter publications may be placed in the hands of all members of the Association who may not have them, the prices have been reduced to amounts covering little more than postage, and entire sets are offered at $2.00 per set.

THE ASSOCIATION REVIEW is a publication of the American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf. It is sent free to Active Members of the Association. Active membership is obtained upon payment to the Treasurer of the membership fee of two dollars ($2), or its equivalent in foreign currency—8s. 4d. in English money; 8m. 2pfg. in German money; 10fr. 2c. in French money; 7 kr. 50 ore. in Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish money; and 10l. 2c. in Italian money. Postal money orders should be drawn on Philadelphia, in favor of F. W. Booth.

Reprints in pamphlet form of the papers on "Formation and Development of Elementary English Sounds," by Caroline A. Yale, may be obtained by addressing the office of the General Secretary. Price for single copies, 25 cents.

Reprints in pamphlet form of "My List of Homophenous Words," by Emma Snow, may be obtained through the office of the General Secretary. Price for single copies, 25 cents.

NAMES AND ADDRESSES OF MEMBERS OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION TO PROMOTE THE TEACHING OF SPEECH TO THE DEAF.

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